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SUBCONTRACTOR'S MONOGRAPH

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SUBCONTRACTOR'S MONOGRAPH
ON
FINLAND

Prepared by the members of the faculty and staff of Indiana University's Graduate Program in Uralic and Oriental Studies.

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PREFACE

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INTRODUCTION

1. This series of monographs was prepared under contract HRAF-2 Indiana-1 by members of the faculty and staff of Indiana University's Graduate Program in Uralic and Oriental Studies, and under the auspices of the Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore, and Linguistics. The undersigned, Chairman of the Program and of the Research Center, served as Principal Investigator. Ruth C. Heffner co-ordinated the project and was its general Editor. Other participants included, on the research staff -- Victor E. Hanzeli, Ken Ishimoto, Igor Kopytoff (Northwestern University), Nicholas Mihailoff-Shelly, Eeva Kangasmaa Minn, Felix J. Oinas, Alo Raun, Linda Raun, and Joseph Strmecki; and as cartographers -- Joan Harris, Robert Mayfield, and John Ray. The author or authors chiefly responsible for each handbook are indicated on the title page of each particular monograph.

2. The contract required that a topical format ("Annex A") be followed, wherever applicable. This requirement was, naturally, complied with, even though, from a purely scholarly point of view, a sharply different arrangement of the data, and of their interpretation, would have been more desirable.

3. The staff feel that the severe limitations of time and the inaccessibility of certain

000 important resources resulted in a product which could be considerably bettered, given a more leisurely approach. The staff, of course, appreciate the circumstances which necessitated rapid completion of their monographs, but urge that these handbooks be revised and expanded at an early opportunity, as well as kept up to date, to insure both comprehensive coverage and the availability of information that is always timely and accurate.

4. Because of the pressure of time and the fact that the members of the research team are not native speakers of the English language, some of the manuscripts, despite editing, lack stylistic polish; occasional lapses from the idomatic will, it is hoped, be eliminated from future versions. In no case do these faults obscure the meaning or distort the substance of the information.

5. The scholarly stimulation afforded by the researches undertaken for this project was not materially lessened by the obligation upon the staff to respond to the stringently specific requirements of the contract. While the peoples and languages of the Uralic group have been under continuous investigation at Indiana University for the past twelve years, work by our team on these monographs doubtless tended to enhance further the development of this field at this member institution of the Human Relations Area Files, Inc., whose assistance in providing this splendid opportunity is hereby gratefully acknowledged.

Thomas A. Sebeok
July 1955

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1a,

Sociological Background

GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE SOCIETY

181 The general pattern of Finnish society can be traced back to the common Northern inheritance of freedom and individual liberty. Because of its ideology, culture and religion--as well as its geographical location--Finland is closely connected to the Scandinavian states and represents a totally different area from East
177 Europe. Its judicial and administrative institutions developed during the common Swedish-Finnish period, and it has received cultural influences from Rome and later from other centers of Western civilization. When annexed to Russia in 1809 Finland represented by far the most advanced part of the empire and retained a position of self-government throughout this

177 period. The effects of this Russian regime are
almost non-existent in present-day Finland.

181 As in Sweden, Finnish society is based on an
ancient peasant culture in which the active
participation of all the people in deciding the
fate of the nation has been characteristic. The
ideas of democracy and personal liberty are
self-evident to a Finn; he could hardly dream
of an existence without them. To an outside observer
Finnish society presents a picture of
extraordinary stability, of a slow, confident
development with almost no interludes of riot
181 and confusion. But it is obvious that a change
178 is now taking place. During this century, and
especially after the last war, Finland has been
changing from a predominantly agricultural
country to a predominantly industrial one, with
all the implications and problems that arise

181 178 from the development of big industry, and economic motives have become more and more predominant in public life. As far as her constitutional or judicial system, public education or general welfare are concerned, Finland undoubtedly belongs among the most advanced nations in the world, and there should be little [668] reason for social discontent. All the same, the number of Communists is considerable, and represents a potential threat to the peace of Finland.

157 There is no doubt that the Finn is a born individualist and resents very much any outside interference. He is not apt to follow leaders, and anyone wishing to influence the Finnish public must have an extraordinarily strong personality. At any rate, it is wiser to appeal to his reason rather than to his emotions, for

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157 by nature the Finn has a logical, matter-of-fact approach to problems. It is very difficult to influence the Finn by propaganda, but, on the other hand, an agitation appealing to the worst features in the Finnish character, those of envy and mistrust, can prove itself quite successful, as has been shown by the accomplishments of the Communists.

Annex "A," Subparagraph lb

Sociological Background

HISTORICAL SETTING

174 According to linguistic evidence, the peoples speaking Finno-Ugric languages originally lived in central Russia around the Volga and gradually split into different tribes. The ancestors of the present-day Finns, the so-called Balto-Finnic tribe, probably left their original home at the beginning of the Christian era and wandered towards the northwest until they reached the southern shores of the Baltic [172] Sea. Archeological evidence, however, seems to place the original home of the Finns much farther westward, around the Baltic, so this problem is still being disputed. At any rate, 144 174 when they were living on the shores of the Baltic, the Finnic peoples came into close

144 174 contact with Lithuanian and German tribes, the result of which was, to a certain extent, a mixed population.

167 162 Gradually some of these Balto-Finnic people began to migrate to the north across the Gulf of Finland. The country here was probably already known to them as rich in forests and hunting grounds, and at that time it was only very sparsely populated by nomadic Lapps and perhaps some Germanic people with settlements along the southwestern coastal area. The tribes moving over to the north were called the Finns (*suomalaiset*) and the Tavastians (*hämäläiset*). A third tribe, the Karelians (*karjalaiset*), had probably migrated by land over the Karelian Isthmus and had settled around Lake Ladoga, pushing their frontier slowly westward. These

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three tribes are the elements comprising the present-day Finnish nation, the common designation for which has been adopted from the westernmost branch of the population.

538
[181]
The first Finnish settlers were already agricultural people, although hunting and fishing no doubt provided a more ample living. They also had already developed their own artistic forms, as shown by grave finds of tools, clothing and ornaments, and by their epical poetry, preserved in the Kalevala and still unsurpassed by anything Finnish poets have achieved in later ages. Epic poetry is an important source for historical investigation, as it reflects the feuds the ancient Finns had with the Scandinavian Vikings during a heroic, military era which

538 brought much devastation on both sides of the sea.

175 797 177 The Scandinavians, meanwhile, had been converted to Christianity and had achieved a kind of national unity while the Finns were still divided into tribes hostile to each other. Under those circumstances, Sweden gradually acquired a foothold in Finland, and the conversion of the Finns to Christianity took place at the same time. The conquest of Finland long has been said to have been completed during three crusades, undertaken in 1155, 1238, and 1293, led by Swedish kings and commanders and resulting in the conversion and submission of the Finns, the Tavastians and the Karelians. However, according to modern historical investigation, the conquest of Finland came about much

175 797 177 more slowly, the Swedes taking advantage of the continued internal animosity between the Finnish tribes. The religious conversion took place very gradually, too. Christianity had its first stronghold among the Swedish settlers, who had immigrated to Åland and to the adjoining archipelago and coastal areas, and from them the new doctrine spread among their Finnish neighbors. The Apostle of Finland was St. Henry, archbishop of Upsala and an Anglo-Saxon by birth, who preached and baptized throughout southwestern Finland until he was killed by a pagan farmer and chieftain, Lalli, who resented the interference of a "foreigner." [773] Lalli has sometimes been elevated to the role of the first representative of the first Finnish national spirit, but he is more or less a mythical figure.

175 mythical figure. St. Henry, on the other hand,
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[776] is a historical figure, and no doubt suffered the
177 death of a martyr during his missionary excursions. He became the patron saint of Finland, and several churches were built to commemorate his deeds.

The conversion was carried on among the other tribes by monks and native missionaries, but in distant regions paganism prevailed until the days of the reformation. There is some indication that the first attempts to convert the
4 Finns came from the East, from the Greek
[192] Catholic Church; for instance, words like *cross*, *Bible*, *pagan*, and *priest* have been taken into Finnish from a Slavic language, but this Eastern
175 influence soon waned. At the beginning of the thirteenth century the whole of Russia, except

175 for the northwestern corner which was dominated by the city of Novgorod at Lake Ilmen, was conquered by the Tatars, and remained in their power for two hundred years. Consequently, Russia was too weak for any expansion towards the west. This calamity to the Russian people was the good fortune of the Finns who, during that period, had time to espouse Western culture and become nationally united as well.

Novgorod alone, however, was strong enough to start negotiations with Sweden over the
175 101 Finnish possessions. The first border line between Finland and Russia was drawn in 1323, going through the Karelian Isthmus to Lake Saimaa and diagonally across the country to the northern part of the Gulf of Bothnia. Thus the land of the Karelians became divided and the

175 Karelian tribe was forever split into a western
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and an eastern part. The northern part of Finland likewise fell to Novgorod, i.e. to
175 Russia. The Finns, however, started moving toward the unpopulated areas in the north, and though they were living beyond the border, they still considered themselves Swedish citizens and paid their taxes to the crown of Sweden. This situation gave rise to innumerable feuds and wars until a new borderline was agreed upon in 1595, and the eastern boundary of Finland was extended up to the Artic Ocean.

Finland was not considered a colony of Sweden but an equal part of the country. Even in 1362 Finnish representatives, together with Swedish ones, elected a new king for the people. The same legal and social system was developed in both countries.

175
565 in both countries. An important feature in the social structure of Sweden-Finland was the free position of the farming class. The peasants never became serfs as they did in Central Europe, but were able to keep their landed property and their political rights in spite of the rising influence of the nobility in subsequent centuries. When the diet was established in 1435, the peasants were from the very first represented in it as one of the four estates. The name peasant, in Finnish talonpoika ('the son of the house,' i. e. the owner of the farm), like the Swedish equivalent bonde, is regarded as an honorary designation of which the owner is very proud.

177 Cultural influences usually reached Finland via Sweden, but the Finns were also in direct

177 contact with many centers of the world. Many Finns studied in the universities of Southern and Central Europe, in Paris, Bologna, Prague, and later on in the German universities. The reformation reached Finland directly from Wittenberg, where young Finnish men were studying under Luther and other leaders of the German movement. The reformer of Finland was Bishop Michael Agricola, who originated the Finnish literary language. The first book in Finnish, a primer, was published in 1538, the New Testament in 1548. The Finns accepted the new doctrine readily enough without any [195] fights or other demonstrations, and towards the end of the century Lutheranism was firmly established in the country.

000 During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries

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175 During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Sweden-Finland gradually rose in political power as a result of several successful wars. As a borderland, Finland had by far the heaviest military duties. After Russia had thrown off the yoke of the Tatars, the consistent trend in her policy was an expansion towards the west and the occupation of Finland. At this time the cream of the Finnish men were following the Swedish kings in their military exploits all over Europe, and the defense of the country was left in the helpless hands of old men and youngsters. Hardly any other nation in Europe has had a past as grim as the Finns. From earliest times the population was exposed to the devastations of total warfare. Russian troops spread over the country, killing civilians, robbling churches, burning farms and cities.

175 At their approach the Finns fled to the forests and engaged in successful guerilla warfare against their invaders. When they returned home they would find their homes in ashes and their fields ruined, but with grim perseverance [642] they kept up their resistance It is no wonder that in those circumstances there developed in the Finns a mistrust, even a hatred, towards the Russians and everything that was Russian, a feeling that was inherited by each new generation.

175 703 By this time the Finns had begun to achieve universal fame as excellent soldiers and generals. The number of Finnish men in the Swedish army was proportionally much larger than that of the Swedes, and the Finnish units were regarded as striking forces which were

175 entrusted with the most responsible battlefield
703
positions. The Finnish cavalry under Gustavus Adolphus and his successors in the Thirty Years' War performed a decisive role in the victories at Breitenfeldt, Lech and Lutzen, and they became the terror of the enemy. A rumor was soon circulated that the Finns were witches and devils whom no ordinary spear or bullet could destroy. These Finnish soldiers, called "Hakkapelites" after a German distortion of their famous battle-cry Hakkaa päälle! ('Strike on! '), are still remembered both in Finland and in Germany as the first representatives of Finnish military fitness.

175 During the seventeenth century the area of Finland had expanded to include the western shores of Lake Ladoga and the province of

175 Inkeri, the district around present-day Leningrad. Up to that time the country had been rather loosely connected with Sweden and ruled by Finnish-born officials; now a stronger central administrative system was established, and Finland was ruled directly from Stockholm. Great economic and cultural progress was achieved, especially under the governor-general, Count Pehr Brahe, who founded the [273] University of Turku--today the University of Helsinki--in 1640, and remained long in the memory of the people as the personification of a bygone golden age, of "the time of the Count." But the new administrative system brought a danger of denationalization to the Finns. Up until that time[1] Finnish had been the common 191 565 language of the gentry as well as of the

[1] [Up to the 17th century--Analyst]

191 565 peasants. but now it became fashionable to speak Swedish instead and to pass as a Swede in the eyes of the outside world. The educated classes rejected their old Finnish family names in favor of distorted Latinized versions or strictly Swedish names. At the same time Swedish, instead of Latin, became the language of education in the schools. Thus the educated classes began more and more to forget their native tongue, the officials no longer spoke Finnish, and the language was used only in religious literature. It was said that "only with his God a Finn could speak Finnish any more," for divine services still were conducted in the native tongue of the people.

175 Sweden-Finland was not able to remain a great power for long. The last decade of the

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[731]
seventeenth century was disastrous for Finland because of the subsequent years of famine and pestilence which cut down the country's population of half a million by one-third. And immediately afterwards came the Great Northern War, in which the Finnish troops excelled under the command of King Charles XII in foreign battlefields, but which left the country defenseless against the depredations of Czar Peter the Great. After Charles XII was defeated and his army dispersed, most of the Finnish officers and soldiers went to imprisonment in Siberia rather than to accept advantageous positions in the service of the Czar. Meanwhile, Russian troops had invaded Finland and conquered one area after another, until they finally had the entire country in their

175 possession. There was no army, hardly any grown-up men to resist them. The following years were the darkest in the whole history of Finland. Russian troops, free from control, devastated and robbed the country, and thousands of Finnish civilians were killed or dragged as captives to Russia, where they were forced to build Peter's new capital, St. Petersburg, on Finnish soil. There was no law, no order in the country, no crimes were punished, no schools operated, there were not people or horses enough to plow the fields, and the survivors of the ordeal were hiding in the forests. The entire governing body of the country escaped to Sweden, except for the ministers, most of whom stayed with their people and often paid with their lives for their

175 faithfulness. When peace at last was established in 1721, Inkeri, Ladoga-Karelia and the Karelian Isthmus were ceded to Russia, and the population of Finland had diminished to a scant 200,000.

Twenty years later Finland again was occupied by the Russians and at the succeeding peace treaty another part of its area was nibbled away. Subsequent wars failed to return any of the lost territories. Moreover, in Finland a bitterness against Sweden, which had provided no defense for them, was slowly spreading among the people. A resistance movement arose among the Finnish-born officers of the army, who were negotiating with Russia to establish Finland as an autonomous state under Russian protection, but the leaders were discovered and beheaded. All the same, it was

175 obvious now that Sweden could no longer keep Finland in its possession.

In spite of its distant location, great events in world politics have always affected the fate of Finland. In 1807 Napoleon and the Czar of the Russians, Alexander I, held a conference in Tilsit and divided Europe among themselves. Finland was acknowledged as belonging to the Czar, and the following year Russian troops once more crossed the frontier. The Swedish king and the government carried on the war half-heartedly, treason among the officers caused the key fortress, Sveaborg, outside Helsinki to fall into Russian hands without a fight. Reinforcements from Sweden failed to appear, except for an inefficient commander-in-chief, who, according to the soldiers, 175 could give only one command, "Retreat!" As the army was retreating towards the north, followed by the enemy, a poignant feeling of shame was shared by officers and soldiers alike. Suddenly one of the lesser Finnish officers turned his troops against the Russians and achieved a glorious victory. The success was short-lived, but it had important consequences. Alexander I was greatly impressed by the fortitude and patriotism shown by the simple Finnish soldiers and this confirmed his decision to give the country a favorable [538] position under Russia. Some forty years later the famous Finnish poet, Johan Ludvig Runeberg, inspired by the events of the war of 1808-09, published a collection of fine patriotic poems, The Tales of the Ensign Stål, which are still

175 regarded as a national treasure and which did much to inspire Finnish nationalistic feeling.

In 1809 the 600-year union with Sweden was broken. The administrative, social and cultural institutions of Finland were by that time well established, and they still remain essentially unchanged. The 100-year union with Russia interfered little with the common Swedish-Finnish inheritance, which still today is strongly felt to bind these two countries together. True to his promise, Alexander I called the Finnish estates together and announced that Finland was now to be raised among the nations, and that the country would have complete internal autonomy. He, like all the subsequent czars, confirmed the laws, the institutions and the religion of Finland and promised to uphold the rights and privileges of the estates, the Church and the individual. Thus Finland, along with the areas previously ceded to Russia, except for Inkeri, had its own diet, its own government, called the senate, its own central administration, its own army (to be used only for defense), and later on even its own monetary system. Customs regulations were established at the border between the two countries, which now were bound together only by a common foreign policy and by the person of the emperor, who became the Grand Duke of Finland.

Although there were many who bitterly complained about the separation from Sweden, on the whole it was a fortunate development, for it put an end to the denationalization of the Finns.

175 Because there was an aversion against the Russians, who were regarded as a completely different people in ideology and cultural background, the Finns, on all levels of society, were
186 reluctant to mingle with them. The national movement, which began in the first half of the nineteenth century, had as its slogan: "We are not Swedes, we can never become Russians, let us be Finns!" The greatest source of inspiration for this movement was the appearance of the
[538] Kalevala, the Finnish national epos, in 1835./ Apart from Christianity and the reformation, it was the most important thing that had ever
186 191 happened to the Finns. National self-esteem was greatly elevated, and the Finnish language, which had been looked down upon as a tongue of the backwoods, was glorified as magical

186 191 and beautiful, able to produce works of art parallel to those of the ancient Greeks. The Finnish literary language was reformed, and in a surprisingly short time it developed to a rich, flexible, modern idiom. Literature, painting and music flourished at the inspiration of the ancient poems. The educated classes turned back to the language of their ancestors; there was a fervent study of Finnish, and a Finnish-speaking educated class was established.

186 Later on, the Swedish family names were abandoned en masse, and Finnish ones--often the original names of the families--were adopted instead. At the head of the national movement was Johan Wilhelm Snellman, philosopher and politician, one of the great names in the history of Finland. As a senator he

186 effected a law under the liberal and respected Czar Alexander II, according to which Finnish was to be established as an official language, side by side with Swedish, to be used in education, administration and jurisdiction.

As a whole the nineteenth century was the most peaceful phase in the history of Finland. It represents a period of inner growth and
175 economic and cultural development. But the last years of the century were ominous. In Russia a chauvinistic, pan-Slavic movement was rising, and the special position of Finland was looked upon with distaste. Then the blow fell, under the reign of Nicholas II in February, 1899. The Czar issued a manifest requiring the decisions of the Finnish senate to be approved by the Russian government. In effect this

175 meant the end of Finland's autonomy and was keenly felt as such by the whole nation. Newspapers published the manifest framed in black, women dressed in mourning, and in Helsinki the monument of the "Good Czar," Alexander II, was covered with funeral wreaths. In a couple of weeks 500,000 names were collected, unknown to the Russians, from all corners of the country and from all layers of society, in a petition asking the Czar to think over his measures, but Nicholas refused even to give audience to the delegation submitting the petition. This also happened to another delegation which brought an address "Pro Finlandia", signed by the most prominent politicians, scientists and men of letters in the free European countries.

Nicholas appointed an enemy of Finland,

175 Bobrikov, as the governor-general and had given him the powers of a dictator. Bobrikov now dispersed the Finnish army, and Finnish youths were ordered to enter military service in Russia. This order, however, had to be revoked, for the Finns started an effective passive resistance, and the young men simply failed to show up for induction. Other arbitrary measures followed, but these were opposed by the Finnish judges who, in turn, were sent in groups into exile or to Siberia as punishment. This persecution continued throughout the remaining period of Russian supremacy.

Bobrikov had made himself the most hated man in the whole history of Finland. In 1904, a young senate official, Eugen Schauman, shot Bobrikov--and himself--in the senate building--

175 this was the first political assassination in Finnish history. Bobrikov's death brought joy all over the country, and Schauman became a national hero. Russian pressure eased after this, and Russia's failures in the war against
[646] Japan brought more temporary relief. The diet of Finland was reorganized into its present state: instead of the four estates of Swedish times it has now only one chamber of
[562] 200 representatives. Finland became the first country to grant women complete suffrage in 1906.

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668 But the Russian oppression began anew after a few relatively peaceful years, and the resistance of the Finns took a more and more active form. The Russian revolutionists also found accomplices in the radical wing of the Finnish

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668

Social Democratic party, and the country by now was in turmoil. The beginning of World War I at first brought no change in the situation. Russian troops were stationed in Finland, but no attempt was made to draft Finns into the Russian army. And the Finns, on their side, hoped fervently that the Russians would lose but otherwise were not involved in the war. The idea spread that the time had come to start preparing for the independence of Finland; it was understood that the liberation of the country could not occur by peaceful means. Sweden was asked to give military training to a group of young Finnish men who were to become the kernel of a future Finnish army. But Sweden, fearful of Russia, declined. The only remaining hope was Germany, which agreed to

175 668 train the Finns as a special unit operating only on the eastern front. From that time on young men, mostly university students, but farmers and workers, too, began to disappear without trace from the country, and the movement continued despite all Russian countermeasures.

Meanwhile, the workers dissociated themselves more radically from the rest of the nation; revolutionary ideas were spread among them. They started forming so-called Red Guards, training with weapons obtained from revolutionary Russian troops. At the same time other strata of the people, farmers and intellectuals, started forming White Guards and using weapons smuggled into the country from abroad.

175 The outbreak of the first Russian revolution in March, 1917, set free the Finnish national

175 leaders then imprisoned in Siberia and in
642 various Russian jails. The most prominent
176 of them was the lawyer, P. E. Svinhufvud, who upon his return was made the head of the senate, the temporary government of Finland--there being no Czar or Grand Duke any more. This government took a decisive step on 6 December 1917 proclaiming Finland an independent state free from Russia and appealing to the statement made by Lenin that no nation was to be
[648] held by Russia without its own consent. The independence of Finland was first acknowledged by France, then by Sweden, Russia and other European countries, and finally by Great Britain and the United States in May, 1919.

175
669 But it was apparent that Lenin was not going to be true to his promise. Russian troops

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remained in Finland, causing much disturbance and infiltrating the Finnish Red Guards. At the end of January, 1918, civil war broke out. The Reds took over Helsinki and southern Finland and installed a communist government. When the senate fled to northern Finland, the country was divided into "white" and "red." In the districts which they controlled, the Communists murdered many prominent citizens who were supposed to be "white"--farmers, state officials, ministers, businessmen--burned buildings and robbed stores. The "white" government gave the task of returning order to General Gustaf Mannerheim, recently returned from Russia where he had made a brilliant military career in the Russo-Japanese War as well as in World War I.

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Mannerheim was quite unknown in his own country, which he had left as a young boy, but he had a deep understanding of his people and immediately earned their full confidence and admiration. He took a decisive step on the night of January 27 at which time some Ostrobothnian farmers, with the help of hunting rifles, knives and clubs, attacked several Russian garrisons and seized their weapons. This was the first equipment of the Finnish army. Mannerheim accomplished wonders with his untrained troops; young Finns in German service returned and were installed as officers; Mannerheim, administered a decisive blow to the Reds in the most important battle of the Finnish War of Independence at Tampere in April, 1918. After that, German

175 troops landed in southern Finland, but there was
669 only scattered resistance now, and on May 16, 1918, Mannerheim rode into Helsinki amidst music and flowers at the head of his army, a striking figure on his white steed, admired and glorified like a god by one-half of the nation and bitterly hated by the other.

642 Beginning its existence as an independent
175 state did not create any administrative difficulties, since Finland had long possessed the basic institutions and trained officials. But the nation was still divided. Aware of the danger inherent in the internal dissension now plaguing the new government, Mannerheim urged mutual forgiveness and understanding, and advocated unity between the Scandinavian countries to which Finland belonged by its very nature, customs, ideology and history.

very nature, customs, ideology and history.

175 727 Slowly the memories of the civil war began
to be forgotten and the resources of the
country were concentrated in constructive
175 181 work. As an independent state Finland showed
amazing economic and social progress. In
the thirties Finland undoubtedly was one of the
happiest countries in the world. Her living
standard rose steadily, she had become almost
self-supporting, communism as a political
party was abolished, and fascism was
too alien to the Finnish nature to become an
important political factor. At the outbreak of
World War II the unanimous desire in Finland
was to keep out of the fight. But unfortunately
175 721 that proved impossible. In her policy of
Westward expansion, Russia had long regarded
Finland as an obstacle; in turn, the Finns had

175 721 consistently presented a united front against Russian aggression, as it was commonly felt that the very survival of the nation was at stake. Russia, no doubt, had planned originally to appeal to the memories of 1918. But is became at once evident that the wounds of that time had been healed, and the Finnish nation demonstrated now an amazing unanimity of purpose which was surprising even to itself. The nation rallied around the now almost legendary figure of Field Marshal Mannerheim, and, in the Winter War of 1939-40, this nation of four million people, practically unaided, led a successful campaign against an aggressor fifty times its size--a glories chapter in the history of Finland.

600 Finland cannot escape the map. It is a

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175 Finland cannot escape the map. It is a
648 borderland, destined to be in dispute between West and East. In the course of centuries Finland has always sided with the West, but every generation has had to pay dearly for it.

121 The most recent developments in the history of Finland with be treated in discussions of political and economic conditions in Subparagraphs 2a and 3a.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1c

Sociological Background

SIZE AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

131 101 Except for Iceland, Finland is the northernmost free state in the world. About one-fifth of its area lies above the Arctic Circle. It is situated between the 60th and the 70th degrees of latitude, its greastest length being 700 miles, its greatest east-to-west distance only 375 miles. The total area of Finland is 337,113 square kilometers (130,159 square miles), of which about 10 per cent is water. Thus Finland is the sixth largest country in Europe, surpassed only by France, Germany, Spain, Sweden and European Russia.

161 The population of Finland on 1 January 1955 was 4,215,000 people. The density of the

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161 population is only 13.2 persons per square kilometer, or 30.7 per square mile. Of all the countries in Europe, only Norway and Iceland are more sparsely populated, and nature, as a whole, in Finland still dominates the achievements of man. The population, of course, is not distributed evenly over the country. It has its greatest density in the southern and southwestern coastal areas, while the northern and eastern parts still present an unbroken chain of primeval forests.

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361 The earliest settlements were established on the coast and at the mouths of rivers, along which the population advanced to the center of the country. There the great inland waterways provided a helpful means of communication, and beginning from the early Middle Ages a slow

166 migration towards the north and the northeast
361
has continued, with major settlements arising on the lake shores and river banks.

The chief administrative districts of Finland are:

634
161

	Density of population per. sq. km. (31 December 1950)	Area (sq. km.)
Uusimaa	67.3	12,232
Häme	30.2	21,645
Kymi	29.0	10,756
Turku and Pori	28.7	23,014
Vaasa	15.6	41,468
Mikkeli	13.8	23,012
Kuopio	13.1	42,984
Oulu	6.4	61,192
Lappland	1.8	99,305

000 During the last few decades Finland has been

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369 During the last few decades Finland has been
162 changing from a predominantly agricultural to an industrial country. In 1950 42 per cent of its population received their livelihood from agriculture and 42 per cent from industry, while the share of other occupations is 16 per cent. As a considerable part of Finnish industry is carried on in large self-contained units situated in the country, 69 per cent of the population can still be classed as rural, and only 31 per cent as urban. On the other hand, it has to be remembered that many communities in Finland are classified as rural although they show concentrations of population much larger than many of the cities and market towns.

361 The populations of the major Finnish cities
161 on 1 January 1955 were as follows:

36/	Helsinki (Swed. Helsingfors)	422,632
16/	Turku (Swed. Åbo)	119,455
	Tampere	111,985
	Lahti	50,546
	Oulu	47,961
	Pori	43,605
	Vaasa (Swed. Vasa)	39,592
	Kuopio	38,500
	Kotka	36,310
	Jyväskylä	35,281
	Kemi	25,174
	Hämeenlinna	23,564
	Lappeenranta	19,121
	Mikkeli	18,500
	Rauma	18,203
	Kokkola (Swed. Gamla Karleby)	15,456
	Pietarsaari (Swed. Jakobstad)	14,998

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Joensuu	14, 271
Savonlinna	12, 099
Porvoo (Swed. Borgå)	9, 190
Hamina	8, 934
Heinola	8, 723
Kajaani	7, 863
Hanko (Swed. Hangö)	7, 311
Raahe	5, 179
Iisalmi	5, 173
Tammisaari (Swed. Ekenäs)	4, 839
Maarianhamina (Swed. Mariehamn)	4, 601
Loviisa (Swed. Lovisa)	4, 579
Uusidaupunki	4, 575
Tornio (Swed. Torneå)	4, 079
Kristiina (Swed. Kristinestad)	2, 964
Naantali	2, 029
Kaskinen (Swed. Kaskö)	1, 895

Uusikaarlepyy (Swed. Nykarleby)	1, 225

The population in the market towns (urban communities which do not have the rights of self-government equal to those of the cities) on 1 January 1950 was distributed thus:

Imatra	28, 100
Karhula	19, 172
Varkaus	17, 656
Riihimäki	16, 177
Nokia	15, 503
Rovanieme	13, 335
Hyvinkää	13, 130
Valkeakoski	11, 649
Kuovola	10, 552
Lauritsala	10, 539
Salo	9, 241
Forssa	8, 881

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161

Kerava	8,205
Pieksämäki	7,886
Järvenpää	7,835
Seinäjoki	7,509
Lohja	7,152
Äänekoski	6,043
Parainen (Swed. Pargas)	6,007
Mänttä	5,864
Toijala	5,807
Suolahti	5,219
Karkkila	4,531
Karjaa (Swed. Karis)	4,048
Lieksa	3,438
Loimaa	3,374
Kauniainen (Swed. Grankulla)	2,514
Nurmes	1,471
Vammala	1,124
Ikaalinen	531

369 166 Since 1880 there has been a steady stream of rural population moving to the cities. To date the rural districts have lost about a million people, 600,000 of whom have moved to urban communities and 400,000 emigrated abroad. The traditional northward migration has now been radically diverted and is being directed towards the south and southwest. The population today is centered in the southern areas, so that the districts of Uusimaa, Häme, and Turku and Pori received between 1921-51 altogether 357,375 new inhabitants. The following diagram shows the fluctuations of this internal migration between urban and rural areas in the period 1947 to 1951:

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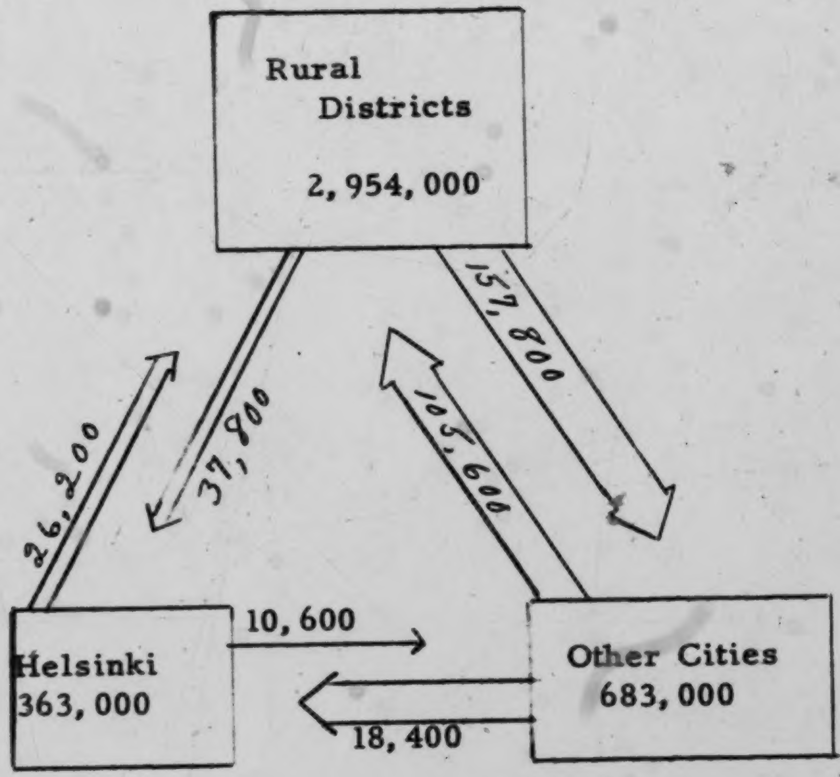
Rural
Districts
2,954,000
157,800
105,600
37,800
26,200
Helsinki
363,000
10,600
18,400
Other Cities
683,000

This internal migration to urban centers in a sparsely populated country no doubt indicates that in certain localities trades have not been sufficiently developed and living standards are often considerably lower than in the cities so that the inducements of urban living have been hard to resist. Several governmental

369 166 committees have been established to examine this problem, but so far little has been achieved.

Another important factor in this movement has been the resettlement of the Karelian [128] people. In 1940 and again in 1944 Finland lost one-eighth of its territory to the Soviet Union, part of it some of the most fertile in the country, with farms which had been cultivated for centuries by the same families. The long-time occupants of this area chose voluntarily to abandon their homes rather than to live outside their native country. Thus, in 1944, 420,286 Finns--11.2 per cent of the entire population--was homeless. By 1949 this displaced population had been permanently resettled, the majority (66 per cent) in southwestern and southern Finland. Though 82.8 per cent of the

369 166 evacuees were of rural origin, 23.6 per cent of the total group chose to live in cities and towns, thus further raising the percentage of the urban population.

166 423 In the process of resettlement, serious attempts were made to keep together in the same or nearby localities those people who had lived together in the old homeland. The ceded territories represented 13 per cent of the national income and farms in the remaining Finland were split up to accommodate the new settlers, financial reparation being paid according to the estimated individual losses. As a result the landed property of the Church was diminished by one-third, that of the State 21.6 per cent, of the communities 19.6 per cent, of industrial concerns 16.1 per cent, and of

166 individuals 4.4 per cent. Some of the Karelians
423 have preferred to pioneer new farms in uncultivated areas with the support of the State. By now the displaced population has more or less adjusted itself to the new surroundings.

163 During the last decade the population of
165 Finland has been steadily increasing, due to higher birth rates and a lower rate of mortality, especially infant mortality. The birth rate in 1949 was 25.7 per thousand, the death rate 11.3. The increase of population was, in 1952, 13.5 per thousand, while in 1935 it was only 6.9 per thousand. The life expectance in 1949 was 54.62 years for men, 61.14 years for women. It has been estimated that Finland easily can support a population twice the size of the
167 present one. In spite of this, emigration abroad has at times been considerable. Even in the

167 early Middle Ages some Finns settled on the western shores of the Gulf of Bothnia, and at the present time the Finnish-speaking population in the Swedish province of Västerbotten has reached 30,000. Another Finnish expansion has been going on towards the north, and a considerable number of Finns are living in Finnmarken in the Norwegian Arctic. There have been Finnish pioneers even in the woodlands of central Scandinavia, but in those regions the Finnish language today is almost extinct. Inkeri--the district around Leningrad--was inhabited by Finns after it fell to Sweden in 1611 and a large majority of the original Karelian population moved out for fear of being forcibly converted to Lutheranism. About 250,000 Finns used to live in this

167 district, but today most of them have been deported and dispersed.

The Finns, together with the Swedes, were among the first Europeans to establish settlements in North America at the beginning of the seventeenth century. But those Delaware-Finns soon disappeared tracelessly among the more numerous newcomers. As a mass movement, emigration started in the 1880's and during the decade 1900 to 1910 the number of Finns emigrating abroad totalled 160,000. The reasons for this were economic as well as political--the fear of increased Russian pressure. In 1930 there were 142,478 Finnish-born immigrants living in the United States; in 1940 their number was 117,210 and in 1950, 95,506. In Canada there were only about 50,000 Finns.

167 After World War II, between 1945-50, 46,000 Finns left the country, most of them settling in Sweden (approximately 40,000). During the last two years emigration has been of minor importance, amounting only to some 5,000 persons a year.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1d

Sociological Background

ETHNIC GROUPS

144 Racially the Finns form a fairly uniform group bearing kinship with the rest of the European peoples, especially with their neighbors to the east and west. When the theory of a Ural-Altaic language relationship was presented about a century ago, the Finns became linked in the popular conception of the theory with Asiatic peoples. Even today they are in some ill-informed circles obstinately regarded as Mongols, although their physical appearance strongle contradicts any such assumption. Even if a linguistic Ural-Altaic relationship could be proved, the Finns as speakers of a Ural-Altaic language could not be

144 called Mongols any more than, for example, the English-speaking American Negroes can be regarded as a Teutonic people.

The most dominant racial element in the Finnish people is the East Baltic race which is spread over the Baltic regions, Russia, Poland, Bohemia and Hungary, and is further represented to a certain extent in Scandinavia and among immigrants in North America. "Purebred" East Baltics are relatively rare. In Finland they have been mixed with the Nordic race, which is predominant in the west of the country, as much among the Finnish-speaking as among the Swedish-speaking population. The Nordic element was partially acquired before the Finns moved over to Finland; mostly, of course, it is due to a mixture with Swedish immigrants. Both the

Both the

144
142 East Baltic and the Nordic elements are distinguished by an exceptionally fair coloring. In the east and in the north there occurs, however, a dark element in the population, no doubt due to Lappish influence, that accounts for the occurrence of darker hair and a slightly shorter height in these areas than in the west. The share of the Lappish race, however, is not determinative to any marked degree.

141 The Finns belong among the tall peoples in Europe, the average height for men being a little above 170 centimeters, and for the women about 10 centimeters less. There are, however, great local deviations in height as well as in the cephalic index.

The average height has been steadily rising during the last few decades, no doubt due to

141 improved living standards. In 1922 the average height of the Finnish men was 170.9 cm., in 1938, 171.5 cm. The following table shows the average height and the cephalic index of Finnish men in different provinces in 1922:

	Height	Cephalic Index
Savo	169.5 cm.	81.30
Northern Karelia	169.6 cm.	82.15
Eastern Karelia	169.7 cm.	81.4
Southern Karelia	169.8 cm.	82.15
Northern Ostrobothnia	170.3 cm.	82.6
Uusimaa	171.4 cm.	80.5
Tavastia	171.6 cm.	80.9
Southern Ostrobothnia	171.9 cm.	80.0
Finland Proper and Satakunta	172.4 cm.	79.4
Swedish-speaking population	172.96cm.	79.6

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141 At present the average cephalic index for Finnish men is estimated to be 81.1 and for women 81.1.

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As both the East Baltic and the Nordic racial elements are distinguished by fair coloring, in this respect there are no marked differences in the several sections of the country.

Eye color	Blue or grey	Brown
Finnish-speaking men	89.5 per cent	10.5 per cent
" " women	83.5 per cent	16.5 per cent
Swedish-speaking men	91.0 per cent	9.0 per cent
" " women	85.0 per cent	15.0 per cent
Hair color	**Fair**	**Dark**
Finnish-speaking men	76 per cent	24 per cent

[continued from page 70]

Finnish-speaking women	82 per cent	18 per cent
Swedish-speaking men	71 per cent	29 per cent
" " women	84 per cent	16 per cent

General color type	Blond	Mixed	Brunette
Finnish-speaking	49. 75 per cent	43. 37 per cent	5. 98 per cent
Swedish-speaking	49. 27 per cent	44. 6 per cent	5. 97 per cent

True dark coloring is rarely found, and the skin is usually very fair, even in the case of persons with otherwise brunette coloring.

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Isoagglutination groups:

A	B	AB	O
41. 9 per cent	18. 2 per cent	7. 4 per cent	32. 5 per cent

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142 The general characteristics of the East Baltic race may be summarized as follows: the body is strong, sturdy, square-set, broad-shouldered, strong-limbed, of medium height. The head is normally large and brachycephalic, though not actually high, and is often rather bony. The face, too, is large, long, and broad across the forehead, the cheek bones and the lower jaw, which is strongly developed. The nose is small and fairly broad. The skin color is fair, the iris light, blue-grey or grey-blue in color, and the head hair is blond, mostly flaxen, and usually straight. The body is very nimble, especially the limbs in relation to the trunk. This type has been called a race of strong, tough laborers, forest-roamers and rowers, quick, indefatigable skiers and

142 sportsmen.

The Nordic race differs from the East Baltic chiefly in the greater height and harrower head. As mentioned above, in Finland these two races have been greatly intermingled, and although the Swedish-speaking population examined as a group shows more pronounced Nordic characteristics, in the case of an individual it is impossible to tell from his physical appearance which of the languages he speaks as his mother tongue.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph le,

Sociological Background

LANGUAGES

191 Finland is officially a bilingual country in which Finnish and Swedish both have the position of national languages to be used equally in jurisdiction, administration and education. In 1940 the languages spoken as mother tongues by the population of Finland were as follows:

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Finnish	3,327,534	speakers
Swedish	353,985	"
Others (total)	14,098	"
Russian	7,210	"
German	2,861	"
Lappish	2,345	"
Diverse languages	1,682	"

Of these language groups only Finnish and

191 162 Swedish have practical importance. The speakers of the other languages mostly live in the biggest cities, except for the Lapps, who are scattered in the four large northernmost communities of Finland: Utsjoki, Inari, Sodankylä and Enontekiö.

The number of Swedish-speaking people has been steadily decreasing, due to a lower birth rate and a higher rate of emigration as compared to the Finnish-speaking part of the population. In 1880 Finnish was spoken by 85.2 per cent, Swedish by 14.3 per cent and other languages by 0.5 per cent of the population, but in 1950 the corresponding figures were 91.2 per cent, 8.6 per cent and 0.2 per cent. The reasons for the special position of the Swedish language in Finland are historical.

191 162 The Swedish-speaking population has its origin partly in Swedish immigrants, who moved over during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, partly in the originally Finnish families who changed over to Swedish during the period when it was the language of the educated class. It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that a Finnish-speaking educated population was established from Swedish-speaking people turning back to Finnish and from the sons of farmers who now had an opportunity to attend Finnish schools.

Even today the Swedish-speaking population is concentrated in the western and southern coastal area and in the archipelago between Sweden and Finland. Åland apparently never has been inhabited by Finnish-speaking people, and

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with the help of its special political position it tries to resist any Finnish expansion. The islands southwest of the city of Turku are generally Swedish-speaking, while those to the northwest are Finnish-speaking. Along the Gulf of Finland the Swedish-speaking area extends from south of Turku in the west almost to Kotka in the east, and along the Gulf of Bothnia south of Kristiina to Kokkola in the north. The major cities--in this area Helsinki, Turku and Vaasa--are all predominantly Finnish-speaking.

The Swedish-speaking minority is still an important factor in public life, although its [565] value is generally exaggerated abroad. There are still proportionally more Swedish than Finnish-speaking people among the well-to-do classes, and the control of most of the

191 162 industrial concerns is in their hands. But, on the other hand, there are poor Swedish-speaking fishermen in the outer archipelago. In cultural life Swedish long since has ceased to [578] be the leading language. There has been much controversy between these languages groups. The Finnish-speaking group has greatly resented the special position of Swedish, considering the language to have unproportional privileges and to be a threat to national unity; the Swedish-speaking people have shown separatistic tendencies, regarding themselves as a kind of "chosen people." The recent war did much, however, to lessen this controversy, and even the Finnish speakers have admitted that the Swedish-speaking segment has had its importance in strengthening the ties which bind Finland to Scandinavia.

191 [871] Swedish is still taught as the second native
language in every Finnish secondary school, as
is Finnish in the Swedish-speaking schools.
Practical knowledge of Swedish, however, has
lately greatly diminished. While in the beginning
of the century it was customary for the
Sinnish-speaking people in the bilingual area
to be fluent in Swedish, today Swedish is only
learned at school like any other foreign
language. The knowledge of Finnish, on the
other had, has been spreading, so that the
great majority of speakers of Swedish are
144 191 able to communicate freely in Finnish. There
is no clear-cut racial demarcation line between
these linguistic groups, so that it is impossible
to tell from the looks of a person if he is of
Finnish or of Swedish parentage. Moreover,

144 191 by now, the language groups have become so intermingled that a Finnish-speaking person may have a long line of Swedish-speaking ancestors, and vice versa. The name is no proof either. During the Swedish regime Swedish family names became the fashion, and even today a Finn may have a family name that he is unable to pronounce correctly.

191 The Finns are not polyglots like many of the peoples in Central Europe, but great emphasis is placed on the study of foreign languages, and, as a whole, the Finns show a fair aptitude in learning a strange idiom. English is now the foreign language most commonly known in the country and, in addition to the school children, a great number of people, both old and young, study it in night schools or through

191 correspondence courses. The speakers of English belong mostly to the younger generation, [871] however, as English was not introduced into the curriculum of the secondary schools until after World War I, and after World War II it was given the position of first foreign language in most schools. The children usually like to study English, which they consider an "easy" language as compared to German and Swedish. In the cities the hotels and larger stores have speakers of English among their personnel, and even on the streets one can easily find someone who is able to communicate in that language. In the country, however, this is more difficult.

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871 German is commonly known by the older educated generation, and until after World War II it was taught as the first foreign language in all

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871
schools. At present it has the position of a second language in most schools, but it has now become apparent that knowledge of German is still indispensable for those desiring to pursue advanced studies. French is spoken only by people with special Gallic interests, and knowledge of other languages is rare. Very few are able to speak the languages of neighboring Norway and Denmark, but then it is quite possible to communicate in Swedish with all the Scandinavians.

Russian is spoken by only an astonishingly small number of Finns, as there has been a strong feeling of resentment towards the Russian language and Russian culture as a whole. Russian was introduced into the curriculum of the secondary schools by force

191 during the Russian oppression at the beginning
871 of the century, but as both the students and the teachers (being Finns) were opposed to it, hardly any results were achieved despite a six-hours-a-week intensive study program. Between the two world wars Russian was taught only as a voluntary subject in some of the boys' schools. After World War II it was established as the first foreign language in a dozen or so secondary schools throughout the country. It is strange, too, that very few Finnish young people choose to study Russian in the university, although the University of Helsinki possesses the best facilities for it outside the Soviet Union.

197 The Finnish language, which in addition to the Finns in Finland is spoken by Finns living in adjoining areas in Scandinavia and the

197 Soviet Union as well as by Finnish emigrants to North America, is strikingly different from most of the idioms of the neighboring peoples. Among these its only close relative is Estonian, and even these two languages are not mutually understandable. After modern linguistic investigation was established, further relatives for Finnish were discovered in Hungarian, Lappish and several split languages in Central and Eastern Russia. Finnish is a descendant of Proto-Finnic, the speech of the ancestors of

192 the present Balto-Finnic tribes. During the centuries Finnish has received a great number of loan words of Baltic, Germanic and Slavic origin; the number of specifically Nordic borrowed words is understandably very large. Many of these have been preserved in Finnish

192 in the Proto-Nordic or Proto-Germanic shape; for instance the word *kuningas* in Finnish today retains exactly the form of the English word *king* several hundred years ago.

194 The most prominent phonological feature in present-day Finnish is the extensive use of vowels. Finnish is the only language in Europe which uses proportionally more vowels than consonants, 96 consonants for each 100 vowels. Italian, e. g. uses 108 consonants for each 100 vowels. Another characteristic feature is the vowel harmony, i. e. the back vowels *a*, *o*, *u* do not occur in the same word with the corresponding front vowels *ä*, *ö*, *y*. Dipthongs are abundant. The consonant system is simple, but the stops *p*, *t*, *k* and their compounds are subject to so-called consonant gradation, depending on the quality of the following syllable. Except

194 for recent loan-words a word or a syllable in standard Finnish cannot begin with more than one consonant, and neither can any consonant clusters occur in word-final position. Length is phonemic in Finnish, and since length and stress do not coincide, but a short syllable may be stressed and a long unstressed, this phenomenon requires special attention by the foreign speaker. He must be careful to place the stress always on the first syllable and keep the long vowels long, even when they are not stressed. Mispronunciations may lead to comical and even annoying situations. In the orthography of Finnish, which is one of the most adequate in the world, a long sound is marked with a double letter. Tapaa minut! 'Meet me!' is something entirely different from Tapa minut! 'Kill me!' –

193 In morphology Finnish makes great use of different case endings and of dervation suffixes which can be affixed one after another to express different notions and modifications. Consequently, Finnish words are generally longer than English ones--but, on the other hand, the same idea can almost always be expressed in fewer
192 words in Finnish. The vocabulary is abundant, containing an especially large number of descriptive words associated with various natural phenomena.

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197 Finnish was first established as a literary language towards the middle of the sixteenth century by the reformer of Finland, Bishop Michael Agricola, who based the standard language on the western dialects which were spoken in the most developed section of

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the country. In the following centuries Finnish was mostly used in religious books and some instructional pamphlets. Towards the middle of the nineteenth century the appearance of Kalevala, which was collected among the Karelians, at once drew attention toward the eastern dialects. They were idealized as representing an "unspoiled" Finish idiom uncorrupted by Swedish, and there was a strong movement for establishing a new literary language based on the eastern Finnish speech. This "Battle of the Dialects" was brought to a compromise by Elias Lönnrot, the collector of Kalevala, so that the western dialects remained as the basis for the literary language, but it was greatly enriched by words, phrases and idioms adapted from eastern dialects.

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197 Since then, great attention has been dedicated to the care of the Finnish language, which today has an extraordinarily large literary use, considering the small number of speakers. A strong puristic tendency has been prevalent for the last hundred years, and numerous words and idioms of Swedish origin have been abandoned in favor of genuine Finnish ones. Modern Finnish is extremely "reluctant" in adapting material from any foreign language. When a new conception is introduced, the resources of the dialects are investigated for an appropriate name, or a new word is born as a result of word compounding or derivations. Such modern terms as radar or plastic, for instance, already have established Finnish names. As further examples may be mentioned the Finnish

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words puhelin 'something to talk with' for telephone, lennätin 'something that makes to fly' for telegraph, veturi 'something that pulls' for locomotive and valokuva 'light picture' for photograph. On the other hand, post is still in Finnish posti, and for radio no good Finnish equivalent has been introduced, despite repeated efforts. The preference for native expressions has brought Finnish further apart from other Western languages, but it also has made scientific literature written in Finnish easily understandable even for uneducated people. This is no doubt one of the reasons why the Finnish-speaking population in Finland reads proportionally more books of scientific interest than the Swedish-speaking group.

Finnish is usually considered a difficult

Finnish is usually considered a difficult
191 language to learn, but after the preliminary
194 difficulties are overcome, it appears to be quite regular in its construction. To a speaker of a Germanic language like English, Finnish may at first sound odd but quite pleasing. Its abundant, fully articulated vowels and the absence of harsh gutteral sounds lend to it a musical, sonorous quality which is strangly reminiscent of Italian.

197 Spoken Finnish is divided into several dialects which seem to be rather far apart but which are mutually understandable. Usually the dialects are divided into a smaller but rather heterogeneous western group and a larger, more or less homgeneous eastern group, which changes into Kerlian without any sharp demarcation line at the eastern boundary. Actually, the reasons why Karelian is considered a different

191 language from Finnish are merely political, a result of historical and cultural developments. The most important sub-dialects in the western group are the southwestern dialect which comes near to Estonian and phonologically and morphologically shows more deviations from the other Finnish idioms than the Karelian language, and the Tavastian dialect, which probably comes next to standard Finnish. In addition to these geographical dialects, there exists a social dialect, a substandard form of speech spoken by the educated classes, although in more careless conversation even they usually prefer the local dialect. It is still unpredictable how the displacement of the Karelians is going to affect the dialect distribution, but the trend seems to be that while the older people among the evacuees stick to their old dialect, the

191 children have adopted the speech of their new environment. The Finnish spoken by emigrants abroad reflects the dialect of the localities whence they originally came. Thus, e.g., the American Finns mostly speak an Ostrobothnian dialect, as the majority of them had their homes in this province. The language used in Finnish publications in America is "grandfather's Finnish," a form of speech prevalent in Finland at the beginning of the century.

192 Common Finnish idioms and espressions

Hyvää päivää!	Good day, or How do you do? (Formal)
Päivää!	" " (Less Formal)
(Hyvää) huomenta!	Good morning!
(Hyvää) iltaa!	Good evening!
Hyvää yötä!	Good night! (This greeting always contains both words.)

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Terve!	**Hello!**
Hei!	**Hi!**
Mitä kuuluu?	**What is the news?**
Kiitos, hyvää vain.	**Thank you, only good.**
Kaikki menee päin mäntyyn	**Everything goes wrong. (Lit. "Everything goes against the pine tree.")**
Miten voit? (informal)	**How are you?**
Miten voitte? (formal or plural)	**How are you?**
Anteeksi, mutta voitteko sanoa, milloin Helsingin juna lähtee?	**Excuse me, but can you tell me when the train to Helsinki is due to leave?**
Juna lähtee kymmenen minuutin kuluttua raiteelta numero kaksi.	**The train leaves in ten minutes from track number two.**
Miten pitkä matka on lähimpään kaupunkiin?	**How far is it to the nearest city?**
Milloin olemme perillä?	**When do we reach our destination?**

192 Puhutteko englantia?	Do you speak English?
Missä on ravintola?	Where is a restaurant?
Ruokalista, olkaa hyvä!	The menu, please!
Tassa, olkaa hyvä!	Here it is. (Olkaa hyvä is used as well in giving something as in asking for something.)
Paljonko tämä maksaa?	How much is this?
Olen amerikkalainen.	I am an American.
Onko hän venäläinen?	Is he a Russian?
Onko hän ryssä?	" " " " (Ryssä is a designation used in everyday speech. It has a degrading connotation and is forbidden in public use.)

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Annex "A, " Subparagraph 1f,

Sociological Background

SOCIAL STRUCTURE

565 No clear-cut class system exists in Finland at the present time. There is even little basis historically for ascribing to the Finns any kind of caste system, as practically the entire population has its roots in common peasant stock. In the early Middle Ages certain peasants undertook to serve the kings as cavalrymen in the army, and as compensation they were exempted from taxes. This was the origin of the nobility in Sweden-Finland, the privileged class later being reiforced by foreign nobelmen who entered into service for the Swedish kings. In the early seventeenth century the nobility was a powerful factor in the State, by then enjoying hereditary rights and in control of a

565 vast wealth from landed property. But towards the end of the century a drastic reduction of the big estates paralyzed the power of the nobility for good and strengthened the position of the [554] king and the peasant population. The few noble families in Finland have long ago lost their importance and prestige, and now birth alone does not have any significance in the position of the individual in the society.

[191] Another and much deeper-rooted differentiation has been caused by the predominance in Finland of the Swedish language. Until a century ago all the educated classes in the country were Swedish-speaking and were looked upon by the people half reverently, half scornfully, as "gentlefolks." This attitude still exists to some extent, although it is hard to define specifically.

554 specifically. Learning and education are valued very highly by the Finns and still give prestige [461] to the individual. On the other hand, there is a short-sighted attitude noticeable among the workers, who consider only manual labor to be "real work" and white-collar people, accordingly, as people of leisure, living on the toil of [871] others. The fact that in Finland higher education actually is accessible to anyone who can [465] meet the qualifications and that skilled factory workers earn a salary far above that of the clerks and petty officials, has been very slow to be realized. Communist propaganda has tried hard to keep alive this resentment, for, it must be remembered, in Finland only a very few intellectuals have ever held communist views.

Wealth, of course, gives a certain kind of

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554 434 Wealth, of course, gives a certain kind of prestige and, at the same time, provides an additional cause of resentment. But differences in wealth cannot play an extremely important role in the society, since the national income is very evenly distributed among the population. No Finns have big incomes by American, British or even Swedish standards. The annual average income per person, children included, was in 1949 about 80,000 Finnish marks, or less than 500 dollars. On the other hand, there are very few really poor people either. The worst off are the owners of small farms in the districts next to the eastern boundary in the north of Finland, where the soil is meagre and agriculture, as a whole, a hazardous undertaking. But there are no slum areas in the cities, and beggary is non-existent.

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555 Finnish society thus presents a rare, uniform
picture, and mobility within the society is
greater than in any other European country.
Many of the most prominent persons in public
life have risen from "lowly cottages," and
perhaps as many with favorable family connec-
tions have suck into oblivion. Birth, wealth
and education are today not a sure guarantee
[574] for success. The internal controversies in
Finnish society are not economic, but political,
with farmers, workers and intellectuals rep-
resenting different interests; party connections
may place a person in a position for which he
lacks the necessary qualifications.

575 It is no wonder tha societies and youth organ-
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izations holding differing political views are
among the most prominent in the country.

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Those with extreme right-wing sympathies, like the powerful Civil Guard and the Students' Karelian League, were abolished after the last war, and then communist organizations, hitherto prohibited, came into legal existence. The most important, as far as number of members is concerned, are certain societies with cultural and social aims. The most important youth movements, counting altogether around fifty per cent of the Finnish youth as their members, were in 1949 as follows:

	Membership
Suomen Pyhäkouluyhdistys [League of the Sunday Schools]	205,000
Finlands Svenska Ungdomsunion [Union of Swedish-speaking Youth in Finland]	130,000
Suomen Opettajain Raittiusliitto [Temperance Union of Finnish Teachers]	110,023

575 Työväen Urheiluliitto nuorisojaosto 883 [Youth Department of the Workers' Sports Society]	105,000
Suomen Nuorison Liitto [Finnish Youth League]	75,000
Suomen Voimistelu- ja Urheiluliitto [Society of Sports and Gymnastics in Finland]	
Youth departments:	
boys	50,000
girls	15,000
Maatalouskerholiitto [League of Agricultural Clubs]	55,000
Svenska Finland Idrottsförbund [Sports Society of Swedish Finland]	45,000
Partioliitto [Scout Union]	
boys	21,000
girls	15,500
Maaseudun Nuorten Liitto [Union of Rural Youth]	34,000
Poikien Keskus [Boys' Center]	34,000
Sosialidemokraattinen Työläisnuorisoliitto [Union of the Social Democratic Youth]	31,500

575 Finlands Svenska Ungdomsförbund 883 [League of the Swedish-Speaking Youth in Finland]	30,000
Kokoomuksen Nuorten Liitto [Youth League of the Coalition Party]	28,000
Suomen Nuorten Kristillinen Liitto [Christian Society of the Finnish Youth (i.e. YMCA and YWCA)]	26,000
Suomen Teiniliitto [League of the Secondary School Students]	20,000
Nuoret Kotkat [Young Eagles (communist)]	17,000

Of special interest is the Finnish Youth League which was established in 1881 to improve education and to awaken a national interest among rural youth. Now the League has 1,021 branches all over the country. The League and its subdivisions organize a varied number of activities, among which study circles, 575 883 acting clubs, folkdancing and gymnastics, choirs and orchestras are especially to be mentioned.

476 241 Co-operative movements have a very important place in Finnish society. According to ancient custom, the country people, after finishing the day's work in their own fields, join together to help those who are hampered by sickness or other debilitation to gather their grain or build their barns. Moreover, the farmers form co-operative units for buying machinery, for organizing the marketing of their products, etc. Some of these have developed into
[474] extremely large enterprises. In 1949 there were 5.066 co-operative units active within the farming population, with 1,020,000 members. The central organization for agricultural co-operatives is Pellervo-Seura, established in 1899.

established in 1899.

241 664 In agricultural politics the most important organization is Maataloustuottajain Keskusliitto [Central Union for Farmers] with all its various subdivisions, the aim of which is to convince the Diet and the Government to adopt economic measures favorable to the farming population.

[471] As individual enterprise is traditionally respected in Finland, the State does not interfere much with agricultural production, however. The improvement of farming and the general living conditions in the countryside depend
241 575 largely upon individual initiative. To this end the farmers have established several societies; especially noticeable work in raising living standards and improving working conditions has been done by such women's organizations as the

241 575 Martha Society and the Society of Agricultural Women.

474 443 Co-operatives have an equally important role for the consumer, as demonstrated by nearly five thousand co-operative enterprises still active in the country. Some of them have members among certain groups of the population, for example the factory workers, and thus tend to have a certain political coloring. The number of stores operated by these several central organizations is extremely large. A co-operative store is a familiar sight on the Finnish landscape.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1g

Sociological Background

FAMILY

594 In modern Finland the family has steadily been losing the position it once had in the society.

591 A real clan system has never been known among the Finns, but among the Karelians there have been large families, married sons staying with their wives and children in the parents' household. The usual custom, still observed among the Finnish farmers, has been for the owners to retire into a separate building on the farm after turning over the estate to their son. In recent years the housing shortage caused by the war has compelled many young couples, especially in the cities, to stay with the wife's or the husband's parents for a

591 longer time--a situation that has brought many difficulties for everyone involved.

162 Wars have contributed to the predominance of the female population. While in 1938 there were 1047 females for every 1000 males, in 1944 the figure had risen to 1092. There were about 30,000 or 8-9 per thousand new marriages in 1939, but immediately after the war the figure rose to 50,000 or 11-13 per thousand a year. Now it is approximately on the pre-war level; in 1951 32,143 new marriages (7.9 per thousand)
582 took place. The severe housing shortage
[362] and difficult economic conditions have greatly contributed to a rise in the average age for marriage. Today it is around twenty-five, somewhat more for men and somewhat less for women, while the legal age is eighteen for men and seventeen for women.

586 and seventeen for women. One of the consequences of war was an increase in the divorce rates. In the 1930's only about 1400 marriages, or 0.4 per thousand, ended in divorce; in 1945 the figure was 5605, or 1.5 per thousand. Recently the rate has again declined; in 1951 3450 divorces were granted.

162 The families in Finland are a little larger than in Scandinavia, 4 to 5 children being common. [369] As in other places, children are more numerous in the rural areas, especially among the poorest population, than in the cities.

[168] Large families are encouraged by tax exemptions and benefits paid for each child under sixteen, regardless of the financial position of the parents.

737 The care of old people mostly remains in the family. For those who cannot be properly

737 cared for in their homes there are communal old peoples' homes, which, for all their modern accomodation, are generally shunned by old people as restraining their liberty and personal life. Thus, according to an unwritten code, the care of the parents usually remains with the unmarried daughter--a fact that is not adequately observed by the taxing officials.

428 Inheritance rights are equal for all the children and, in the case of an unmarried or childless person, for other groups of relatives. Adopted children are regarded as direct heirs. Husbands and wives do not inherit from each other, unless they make a marriage settlement or a will for the benefit of the other spouse. Landed property is divided equally among all the children, although usually only one of them takes care of the estate. If he is able to do so,

428 he may pay the others out of his own share and become the sole proprietor.

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369 In rural areas the parents are still generally treated with esteem, as revealed, e. g., in the use of the formal "you" in addressing them; however, in the cities and among the educated classes it has long since been replaced by the familiar "thou." A strong love of home and ancestral esteem also are characteristic of the peasant population. Many a farmer can show with pride a framed statement on his wall indicating that his farm was handed down in the same family for four hundred years--perhaps even for a longer time--but there exist no documents for the earlier periods.

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594 In the cities, again especially among the educated classes, family cohesion has greatly suffered in the many cases in which the

369 parents work outside the home. The percent-
594
562] age ofprofessional women is extraordinarily
high in Finland, caused both by a feeling of in-
855 dependence and of economic need. Moreover,
594 many of these workingmotherscrowd their free tiem attending a multitude of meetings and other activities, and the children are left in the care of servants until they are old enough to find their company outside the home. For this reason the children tend to be free and indpendent and learn to make decisions for themselves at an early age. As a whole, however, the educational code is somewhat stricter than, e.g., in America, and the authority of older people is more rigidly adhered to. In towns and in the country discipline in the schools usually is easily maintained; in the cities difficulties may arise.

000 the cities difficulties may arise.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1h,

Sociological Background

SOCIAL VALUES AND PATTERNS OF LIVING

The Finns, living in the northernmost corner of civilization, have long remained relatively unknown to the rest of the world. In popular imagination they have been regarded as a kind of mysterious people practicing a dangerous witchcraft. Even up to a century ago many a sea captain was reluctant to take Finns in his crew, for they were believed to be able to "tie the winds" by magic tricks and to force the ship to a standstill in the middle of the ocean. To any interested observer today these superstitions seem particularly strange, for the Finns are actually an extremely practical and matter-of-fact nation.

181 157 Their unyielding environment has forced the Finns to concentrate on the problem of acquiring daily bread, and this has contributed to the realistic strain in their character. At the same time, however, they show a keenly developed reverence for spiritual values, as demonstrated in the old poetry in which courage of conviction and idealism are valued higher than military exploits. 157 There exists a tendency to quiet meditation in the Finnish character, probably influenced by the forced loneliness of the wilderness which has been the home of the Finn for centuries. As a whole, the Finn is extremely reticent; he possesses little natural charm; and the sympathetic features in his character can be appreciated only after more intimate acquaintance. The best qualities in a Finn are

157 his physical and moral strength: his great courage, persistence, reliability, and a genuine kindness and unexpected sense of humor hidden under an often grim exterior. He despises all pomp, any kind of outward show of emotion. The drawbacks to the Finnish character are a certain tendency to quarrel and to envy, and a violence that is unsuspected in such a calm-appearing people, commonly considered to be among the most humane and law-abiding in the world.

The basic personality trait of the Finn is his unbelievable stubbornness, which is a key to most of his good as well as his bad characteristics. With the help of it he has again and again overcome difficulties so great that others have adjudged them impossible to solve, and

157 because of it he has often indulged in petty quarrels and disputes. This stubbornness is called in Finnish sisu, a word which has no equivalent in any other language, and which can best be described by the words of Aleksis Kivi, the greatest of all Finnish writers: " 'Sisu' takes a man even through a grey stone! "

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105 In spite of its fairly isolated position, Finland has always been open to influence from abroad, and the Finns, while clinging to their traditional culture, have for a long time been ready and willing to accept new ideas. In this way they have created a civilization which is original in in the best sense of the word, at the same time making use of valuable elements of European civilization. The relatively high level of Finnish folk culture is due to the moral qualities

105 181 of the people and to their having early acquired a high degree of civilization. The Finn has always wanted to think for himself, and the dominant note in Finnish society has always been liberty--slavery and serfdom have never existed there. 157 [156] The Finn is decidedly individualistic, cherishing his traditional rights, but he has a reverence for his governmental and judicial systems in which he himself is an active party. He is not easily led astray by revolutionary doctrines, and seldom has he risen against the prevailing authority.

The Finn is not actually conservative--the modern character of present-day Finnish society and culture bears ample testimony to this--but he is suspicious of outside influence. Towards foreigners he is very hospitable--

157 although visitors are still rare in many Finnish homes--and a little bit amused at the same time. He has an aversion to propaganda of any kind and he takes too little notice of the wild rumors and totally erroneous interpretation of his country and his people that still are fairly common abroad. He also has a tendency towards excessive modesty and is ready to admire the achievements of other peoples, although in his heart he may be convinced that his own country is best. Polite phrases and flattering are alien to him, and he is apt to express his opinion openly and without any softening or adornment. But, on the other hand, his friendliness is heart-felt, and a Finn can hardly be offended by anything more than by a refusal of his profferred help or service. It is a Finnish tradition to treat any guest in one's home,

157 whoever he may be, with the utmost courtesy and hospitality, and, however busy one may be, it is always best to accept this hospitality gratefully and patiently. The Finns never seem to be in a hurry, and it is said--although this is an over-statement--that trains are the only thing on time in Finland.

The individualism of the Finn is partly due to the isolation in which he has lived for centuries.
361 The settlements have been sparse; even today many faraway houses are cut off from all connections with neighbors for some time every year. Nowhere in the rural areas in Finland can one meet crowded villages with streets and squares as in Central Europe. The farmhouses stand wide apart each on its own hill, surrounded by fields and pastures. Only around

361 the churches and railroad stations do the habi-
tations appear denser, not to mention the
housing projects which have risen around big
361 industrial concerns. The farmhouses are
342 situated near lake shores, wherever possible,
and are invariably surrounded by trees.
According to ancient tradition, each house
should be built under a large spruce tree, and
birch trees should stand in the vicinity for the
cuckoos to come and sing in the spring. Many
of the farmhouses are beautifully proportioned,
painted red with white corners and window
frames and surrounded by gardens with flowers
and blossoming bushes. The forest usually
begins directly behind the back yard and may
extend over hundreds of acres.

As for Finnish rural culture, there are no

184 As for Finnish rural culture, thereare no marked deviations in different parts of the country, nor between the Finnish-and Swedish-speaking population. Moreover, the same patterns of behavior are to be found on the opposite side of the Gulf of Bothnia, in Sweden, while the Gulf of Finland has formed a much more noticeable barrier. In Finland itself, however, a slight cultural demarcation line can be drawn, more or less according to the border between the Western and the Eastern dialect groups. So, for instance, the western parts are the areas of hard bread and so-called 'long' butter-milk, whereas in the east soft bread and curdled milk are preferred, and there is a difference also in the shape of certain tools and other peices of farm equipment. As a whole, of course, Scandinavian

184 features are more marked in the west, while among the easternmost population some East Karelian and Russian influence is to be noticed.

369 The difference between the rural and urban areas is not very marked either. It is said that every Finn still has some of the old pioneer spirit in him and is a born forest explorer. But this applies to the city dweller as well as

517 the rural people. On Sunday mornings the roads outside the cities are crowded with people, old and young, on foot or on skis, depending on the season, each headed for a day of hiking in

528 the forests. During the summer the cities seem almost dead. Theaters are closed and the movie houses give only slack performances. Everyone who can tries to leave the city for the months of June, July and August. Many people,

528 intellectuals and workers alike, have summer cottages in the country, on an island or on a lake shore, while others rent rooms in farmhouses and cheerfully spend three months "roughing it." Near the cities the islands and shores are dotted with cottages, with gardens cleared around them, but many people prefer to find a summer home in a desolate, distant [554] locality. The possession of one's own cottage is valued much higher than ownership of a car, for example. The family leaves the city as soon as the schools close at the end of May, and the father, who must continue with his job in town, commutes between the two localities all through the summer, every day or on weekends, depending on the distance. Many of the 342 cottages are built by the owners themselves.

342 They may be quite simple and bare of modern conveniences--even electricity is not necessarily needed, for there is practically no night
343 during the summer months--but invariably there is a bathhouse somewhere on the property. As a rule, the bathhouse is the first and the most important building to be erected.

The bathhouses are a characteristic feature of the Finnish landscape. Every farm has one, and almost every dwelling, no matter how modest. According to recent estimations, there are about 400,000 bathhouses, not including the big commercial ones in the cities. On Saturday evenings, when rowing on a lake, one can see smoke rising out of the chimneys of a multitude of bathhouses at the water's edge, many of them very picturesque buildings. The bathhouse, or

515 The bathhouse or sauna, as it is called in Finnish, is heated at least every Saturday througout the year, and in the summer, during the working period in the fields, almost every day. Going to the sauna has developed in Finland into a highly ritualistic occasion. Families with small children bathe together, or grown-up men bathe separately and women and children afterwards.

343 In addition to the bathing room the sauna usually contains a dressing chamber and a laundry room. In the bathing room itself the most prominent feature is a special kind of stove in one corner, with round stones placed above the fireplace. The remaining space is taken up by a raised dais and miscellaneous
343 benches, stools and water barrels. When the
515 fire is made, the stones gradually become

343 515 blazing hot and remain hot long after the flames have been extinguished. The preparation of the sauna is begun in the early afternoon, and it is ready for the first bathers after the evening 515 meal. At this time the men walk into the bath-house in a solemn procession, each carrying a broom made of fresh birch twigs, a towel and a clean shirt. In the sauna the bathers climb up to the dais, place their birch twigs each in a basin full of hot water, and one of the men pours water over the red-hot stones in the fire-place. The steam thus created rises up to the bathers, and after repeated pourings the temperature becomes as near to the boiling-point as human skin can endure. The effect of the heat is intensified by beating the body with birch twigs to aid circulation. After the steam-treatment the next step is to wash oneself with soap

515 and water and then plunge instantly into the lake, or, if it is frozen, to roll around in the snow. This method of bathing seems rather strenuous, but the result is a wonderful feeling of cleanness and well-being, a softening of the muscles and stimulation of the circulation. Of course, the old and weak people follow a much less rigorous procedure.

The bath is as much a form of entertainment as of cleanliness, and the preparation of the sauna for his visitor is the best way a Finn knows to show his friendliness. Some people carry the sauna enthusiasm to extremes, making a game of seeing who can stand the greatest heat and jump directly from the dais into ice-cold water, then back again, and so on. The sauna has been considered almost a

515 holy place, and even today children are warned against making too much noise while bathing.

[844] In earlier times most babies were born in the sauna--a wise precaution, for the sauna is practically germ-free. Certainly the sauna has contributed much towards the traditional cleanliness of the people. It has been a valuable asset for Finnish sportsmen, and through them it has become known throughout many parts of the world. Finnish emigrants have brought the idea with them to their new homes, and in Scandinavia as well as in North America one often encounters a typical Finnish sauna.

857 526 By force of circumstance, Finnish children become familiar from a very early age with skiing, rowing and swimming, and they also have opportunities to become experts at the

[857] 526 traditional games of wrestling, running, tug-of-
542 war, sack-racing and various ball games. A
526 517 real interest in sports in general, however, did not arise until the beginning of this century, especially after the spectacular success of Finnish long-distance runners and other athletes in the Olympic Games in Stockholm in 1912. The most popular sports in Finland are the ball games, i. e. soccer, ice-hockey and the national form of baseball, after which come skiing, track and field, gymnastics, swimming, pathfinding, wrestling and boxing, cycling and skating. Track and field, in which Finland held second place after the United States in all the Olympic Games until the London event in 1948, are the special favorites of the public, and the large international competitions gather a large

526 542 517 number of spectators. Cross-country skiing is a real everyman's sport, popular among old and young alike. In some rural districts skis are still an indispensable means of communication in winter time, and near the cities there are innumerable tracks in the forest for those who ski for pleasure. The school children are given a week's vacation for skiing each winter, and older people are urged to continue their practice.

A large number of Finnish sportsmen have achieved international fame, especially in track and field, skiing, wrestling and skating. They have come from all layers of society, farmers and workers being especially well represented among them.

The favorite sport occasions among the

541 The favorite sport occasions among the
517 farmers are horse races, at which the horses are not ridden but are harnessed before small light carriages. Finnish represent a fairly small and gracefully built variety which is
363 especially good for long distance running. However, for practical use, even in the country horses are being replaced by cars and trucks, and in the cities they are becoming a curiosity, the bicycle is now as indispensable in summer time as skiis are during the winter.

517 In addition to sports, music is a popular form
533 of recreation, in rural areas as well as in cities. Almost every village has a choir, and in summer singers from every part of the country gather for large music festivals.

517 Theater is also very popular among the Finns.
545 Professional theaters exist in all the cities and

517 other densely populated areas, and almost every
545 rural community has an amateur company whose
performances sometimes are surprisingly
346 polished and skilled. In 1951-52 there were 33
545 government-subsidized professional theaters,
3 of them performing in Swedish, and 73
workers' amateur companies and 2400 groups
of actors giving regular performances under
546 the sponsorship of different societies. During
the same season there were 505 motion picture
theaters, about one-tenth of them in Helsinki.
517 Handicraft and reading are still considered a
good way to spend long winter evenings, not to
speak of radio-listening, which during the last
few decades has become a very important source
of entertainment as well as of information.

527 Special holidays are observed in both rural
and urban areas. The most important among

527 these are Christmas, Shrove Tuesday, Easter and Midsummer, each one celebrated with its special forms of entertainment and traditional food. At Midsummer the rooms are decorated with fresh birch leaves, bonfires burn on the shores, and young people spend the short hours of the "nightless night" with song and dancing. The patterns of celebration are very much the same as in Scandinavia, although there are some differences, e.g. in the traditional dishes and decoration.

771 Traditional beliefs and superstitions have little importance in the Finnish society of today. although the ancient poetry bears witness to an extraordinarily fertile imagination, the present-day Finns are apt to take a logical and practical view of most phenomena.

183 As a rule, there exist few codes for social behavior, and each individual is left to lead his life pretty much in his own way. A drive to keep up with the neighbors is noticeable, although it is not very significant, and usually a Finn resents any kind of interference with his personal life. On the other hand, a co-opera-
183
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tive spirit is evidenced in various situations. One of these is the prevailing talkoot custom, which means that a group of people, both in the country and in the cities, donate their free time to work for a sick or needy neighbor. Many war-widows and invalids have had their homes built and their crops cared for in this war, and many communities have obtained a sports-field with this free assistance.

000 As a whole, work is held in great esteem in

461 As a whole, work is held in great esteem in Finland. A farmer is judged according to the state of his fields and his barns rather than on the basis of an impressive looking house or fancy agricultural machinery. The Finns have a reputation for being good workers, although after the recent war the situation has left
[857] plenty of room for improvement. On the farms the children become accustomed to hard work from an early age, as hired help is hard to get
462 and too expensive for small land-owners. The heaviest burden, however, falls on the housewife. The position of women in Finland is traditionally free, although the wife's share of work often is quite unproportional, and the husband and wife together make their decision on important matters. The fields and the horses are the farmer's responsibility, while the wife

462 takes care of the cattle, the garden, the household and the children, and is expected always to be ready to help in the fields. The woman has long been considered an equal of a man, but at the same time she is supposed to accomplish as much as a man or even more. In wartime women have been accustomed to take over and have proved themselves reliable and competent. They have been used to ploughing and turning the spade, and during the last war they worked successfully as mail carriers, streetcar drivers, railroad conductors and contruction workers, not to speak of the large corps of women who volunteered for military service and who often were sent near the front. Their work, however, was limited to cooking, nursing, office work, and spotting enemy aircraft, for there is a

462 strong feeling against women taking up arms. The loss of manpower caused by the war made women indispensable in various professions. In the stores one seldom sees male clerks; there are today more female than male physicians, especially among the dentists. Except for becoming an ordained minister in the Church or an army officer, all occupations are theoretically open to women, but in practice key positions usually are filled by men, and in spite of social progress the principle of equal pay for equal work has not been realized in many fields of endeavor.

671 Freedom, democracy and esteem for law and justice have always been the chief ideals in Finnish society. This is demonstrated in the constitutional and judicial systems, inherited

671 from the Swedish-Finnish period and based on
the idea of the active co-operation of the people.
The law is trusted by the people and felt to be
binding on everybody, the highest executive
647 powers included. Civil servants and officials
have generally demonstrated high moral stand-
ards--to assure them complete impartiality
their positions are made permanent, forfeited
only in the case of a serious misdemeanor--and
[662] corruption has been almost unknown. Lately,
[551] political connections have begun to play an im-
portant role in public life, and, as indicated
above, they have been sometimes decisive over
professional merit in filling open positions in
the administration.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph li,

Sociological Background

ARTISTIC AND INTELLECTUAL EXPRESSION

517 Finnish fine arts have, on the whole, a very strong national flavor. Their basis is in the traditional achievements of the people, while intellectual interest has been especially keen on subjects relating to domestic affairs. At the same time , Western elements are distinguishable throughout the Finnish culture.

538 Literature. The greatest cultural achievement of the Finnish people is their ancient folklore, which by far outnumbers that found and collected in any other part of the world, and among which poetry holds the central position. The poetic meter goes back to the Balto-Finnic period and may show some Lithuanian influence, but the

538 content is purely Finnish. Lyrical ballads and songs are found among other Balto-Finnic peoples, especially among the Estonians, but the Finns possess in addition a large treasury of epic poetry, partly mythical, partly historical in character. Scattered specimens of the old Finnish poems or runes, as they are called, are found throughout modern times, but the actual collecting was not begun until the past century, when Kalevala was published in 1835. By that time the old runes had undergone many changes. Scientific research has placed the original home of the runes in southwestern Finland, at the time of the feuds between the Finns and the Vikings, but next to nothing of the old poetry has been collected from this area. The influence of urban civilization and

538 of the Church, which condemned the runes as devil's songs, made them sink more or less into oblivion. During the centuries, however, the runes were transmitted from one district to another until they reach East Karelia and the regions outside the political boundaries of Finland. The Karelians, who lived for centuries undisturbed and forgotten in the wilderness, transmitted the songs orally, generation to generation. The bulk of the Kalevala was collected in Uhtua and Vuokkiniemi in northern East Karelia near the Finnish border, but still more material has been found among the Finns in Inkeri, while Finnish Ladoga-Karelia likewise proved itself rich in ancient runes. The publication of the Kalevala was of enormous importance both politically and culturally for it

538 awakened and nourished Finnish nationalism and began a new ear in the spiritual life of the country (see Subparagraph 1b). Attention was turned towards Karelia, which at first was supposed to be the original home of the runes, to such an extent the western Finland was unduly neglected in the collection work.

Modern research has shown that Kalevala is not a uniform epos, but consists of a number of epic poems, created by one or more unknown poets, which during the centuries became more and more intermingled in oral interpretation. Lönnrot, the publisher of the Kalevala, completed the process of homogenization, combining individual poems and epic cycles. After much research, the runes have been returned more or less to their original form, and they

538 represent an achievement so well-knit in structure and so powerful and dignified in expression, that they far surpass the Kalevala, itself, in spite of its many artistic merits.

At any rate, as a work of art Kalevala deserves all the attention that has been given to it. It has been translated into a dozen languages, but its meter, which makes full use of the prosodic qualities of the Finnish language, and its use of alliteration and parallelism makes impossible a translation which does full justice to the original. In dramatic power and in grandeur of poetic setting it cannot compete with Homer, but in quiet lyrical charm and in the description of nature it is unsurpassed in all folklore.

In addition to epic poetry Lönnrot and his followers collected an enormous amount of

538 magic formulas--some of them traceable back to pagan times--lyrical songs, legends and ballads. The most noteworthy among these last-mentioned is the long medieval ballad Elinan surma (Death of Elina), which in its dramatic quality and imaginative language is a pure pearl in Finnish folklore. It is to be noticed specifically that this piece of art, which has a strong local coloring, was preserved and written down in the west of Finland. The ballads and the songs were published in Kanteletar, which appeared a few years after Kalevala. The songs are comparatively short pieces, in the same meter as the runes, reflecting a wide range of human sentiment.

The songs were usually performed by young girls at the village swings, but only "bearded

538 heroes" were considered worthy enough to sing the epic runes. In the last century there still existed a number of these rune singers--remarkable old men with the look of wizards or prophets--who retained in their memory thousands of lines handed down from their fathers and ancestors. When runes were sung, there were always two performers sitting opposite one another with hands connected. One of them was the singer, the other merely repeated his lines, one by one, to give him time to collect his memory. People would gather reverently around to listen, and often someone accompanied the singing with the zither-like kantele, a traditional Finnish musical instrument.

The collection of folklore is still going on everywhere in Finland. The main emphasis

538 has been on epic poetry--the results have been published in a huge 36-volume work entitled *Suomen Kansan Vanhat Runot* (*The Ancient Runes of the Finnish People*)--but there remains a seemingly inexhaustible treasury of folk tales, proverbs, riddles and other folkloristic material. Situated as it is at the crossroads of the north, both Western and Eastern folkloristic elements have found their way to Finland, where they are still surprisingly well preserved despite the admixture of Finnish elements. The collecting is effectively organized: various people active in local affairs, such as ministers, teachers, and farmers, have done volunteer work in gathering and have submitted their manuscripts to specialists for scrutiny and comparison. Finnish scholars have led the world in

538 folklore research. The collection and preservation of Finnish folklore is an achievement any nation would be proud of, but, characteristically, very few Finns are even aware of the fact.

[536] The appearance of the _Kalevala_ marked the birth of Finnish belles-lettres. The fates and exploits of ancient heroes proved an inspiration especially in the drama. The most successful of the dramatists was Aleksis Kivi, whose tradegy Kullervo describes the unfortunate Finnish hero in true Shakespearean spirit. At his height, however, Kivi is a realistic and humorous author. His comedy _Nummisuutarit_ (_The Cobblers on the Hearth_) and his long novel _Seitsemän Veljestä_ (_The Seven Brothers_) are true classics of Finnish literature, still as fresh and enjoyable as when they first appeared

538 almost a century ago. Kivi was an original genius, who combined a rare, sensitive lyric idealism with robust realistic description and a rich folk humor. As often happens, he was not fully appreciated by his contemporaries, and the greatest Finnish writer and master of humor died in poverty, abandoned and insane, at the age of thirty-eight.

The most celebrated of all the authors of the nineteenth century was the poet Johan Ludvig Runeberg, who wrote in Swedish but who in spirit was completely Finnish. His poetry is classical in form, masculine in expression, enlivened with an idealism which also shows glimpses of a fine humor. His most famous work is a collection of patriotic poems, The Tales of the Ensign Stål, relating the events of

538 the Finnish war in 1808-09. Together with the Kalevala these poems have served as the chief inspiration for the Finnish nationalistic spirit, and they still retain a key position in the literature of Finland.

The amount of original literature published annually in Finland is extraordinary, but during this century there have been very few authors who deserve worldwide fame. In present-day Finland lyric poetry probably has reached the highest level of attainment, but unfortunately it is virtually untranslatable. The greatest lyric poet was Eino Leino, who died some thirty years ago, and who is perhaps the only poet who has been able to use successfully the old Finnish meter in comtemporary writing. After him there have been a great number of

538 young Finnish authors, many of them quite talented, who have been immersed in admiration of beauty or struggling with the questions of life and death. Many of them have succumbed to tuberculosis, the poets' disease, before reaching the age of thirty. In Finland it is next to impossible to live by one's literary efforts alone, and many of the most prominent authors and poets hold respected positions in the society as scientists, scholars, ministers, teachers, etc. Cultural funds and organizations do their best to help talented authors and to give them an opportunity to concentrate on creative work.

346 Architecture. The earliest specimens of Finnish architecture are the mediaeval stone churches in the southern and central parts of

346 the country, of which about 75 are still preserved in good condition. The oldest of these are from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, situated on a hill on a lake shore, with sturdy grey walls and high Gothic roofs. The bell-tower stands separately, at some distance; in Åland the rural churches have a tower on the top. Built by wandering monks and craftsmen, these churches are ditinguished by simple dignity and noble proportions, which make them blend harmoniously with the scenery. The Romanic-Gothic cathedral of Turku, built between 1229 and 1300 and enlarged continuously through the Middle Ages by the addition of new chapels and chancels, belongs among the most beautiful in the Northern countries. Many of the great men and women of Finland's past lie buried within.

349 Another aspect of mediaeval architecture is represented by the stone castles, of which those of Turku, Hämeenlinna, Savonlinna (and Viipuri) have survived the destruction of wars and other devastations; of others only ruins remain. They reflect more genuine mediaeval features than the old castles in the other Northern countries. The castle in Turku today contains an extensive and interesting museum. The castle in Savonlinna, called Olavinlinna, a particularly beautiful example of Finnish architecture situated on an island in the wide Saimaa lake system, is a favorite tourist spot.

[346] Churches dating from the period of the reformation were usually built of wood in imitation of the style of the mediaeval ones, but there exist also a few stone mansions. The most decorative were built in the following century in the baroque

349 style as homes for the nobility, whose influence at that time was at its height. 361 341 The cities remained modest until the beginning of the last century, when city planning and street construction actually started. The center of Helsinki, built in neoclassic style, dates from this period. Later certain nationalistic trends became evident even in the architecture. This nationalistic school was represented by the most famous of all Finnish architects, Eliel Saarinen, during his earlier work, and it had as a result such creations as the railroad station and the 341 National Museum in Helsinki. At present, Finnish architecture is distinctly modern, as represented by such achievements as the Olympic Stadium and the Children's Hospital in Helsinki and the Burial Chapel in Turku, a deserving modern counterpart for the Cathedral.

000 deserving modern counterpart for the Cathedral.

532 Painting and Sculpture. Many of the mediaeval churches are decorated with colorful al secco paintings, carved altar shrines and wooden sculptures, which lately have aroused a great deal of artistic interest. Names of individual painters and sculpturers, however, are scarcely known prior to the nineteenth century. The most prominent among the later Finnish painters were Albert Edelfelt, Akseli Gallen-Kallela, and Eero Järnefelt, whose most active periods came around the turn of the century. Edelfelt was widely recognized abroad as a painter of portraits, historical scenes and sketches from folk life, and many of his works, the most famous of which is perhaps the portrait of Louis Pasteur, found their way to the Louvre

532 in Paris and to the Eremitage in St. Petersburg. Gallen-Kallela, probably the most talented and original of them all, expressed his forceful artistic temperament in realistic sketches of subjects from folk life, and later in a series of paintings based on Kalevala and representing an individualistic, decorative style which is strangely harmonious with the spirit of the old runes. Järnefelt had a more quiet, lyrical style. He was the painter of sensitive portraits and nature and folk sketches, all animated by a fine sense of humor. Later years have produced a number of artists following the pan-European trends of naturalism, impressionism, expressionism or modernism. Many of them are well known and highly esteemed all over Scandinavia, but few have achieved international fame. Among the

532 sculpturers the best known is Väinö Aaltonen, who has done noticeable pioneer work in using granite for his statuary. His works have been represented in several international exhibitions, the most famous, perhaps, being the statue of the great runner Paavo Nurmi, in which movement has been captured in stone.

533 Music. The collections of Finnish folk music, like those of folklore in general, are remarkably extensive and well-studied. The most archaic *examples are the stereotypic melodies employed* in the singing of epic runes. Later times have contributed a multitude of song and ballad melodies, usually in the minor key and reflecting the sentiments of the singer. Even dance and journey songs, although gay in rhythm, are

533 generally cast in the minor key. There exists also a treasury of religious folk music, so that the greatest part of the Finnish hymnal is composed of native material.

The instrumental folk music is noteworthy, 534 too. The national instrument of the Finns is the kantele, which is reminiscent of a zither or a small harp, and is placed on one's knees while playing. Lately there has been a kind of renaissance of kantele-playing but among the people this instrument fairly early was replaced by the violin which is used for playing dance music at weddings and other gatherings. There still exist performers of folk music, and various localities have their own dance melodies.

533 The Finnish folk music is interesting and original and deserves wider recognition. In a

533 way it has its best spokesman in Jean Sibelius, who, although he never has introduced any borrowed material into his compositions, in his themes often comes surprisingly near to folk music. During the last hundred years Finland has produced a number of outstanding composers, but they are all over-shadowed by the almost legendary figure of Sibelius, who has dominated Finnish music for the last sixty years.

The Finns are, as a rule, considered an especially musical people. This is true especially of the Karelians, who are renowned for their beautiful singing voices and musical ability. But the general level of musical taste leaves much to be desired. The interest in classical music is mostly limited to the educated classes; folk songs are known by all but are

533 considered "out of fashion." Jazz music is not popular in Finland except among a few university and high school students, while the common people favor a kind of "hillbilly music." However, the Finns are extremely interested in choir singing, and thus become acquainted with better vocal music.

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545 Dramatic Arts. The interest shown by the Finns in dramatic art, if one considers the number of theaters and acting companies in proportion to the size of the population, may be adjudged very great. Actors and authors also often give public readings of poetry and prose pieces, and, as a rule, these occasions
546 are well attended. The products of the Finnish film industry are almost entirely limited to

546 Finnish audiences, although occasionally they may be shown in Scandinavia too.

306 [172] Art Industry. Archeological finds have produced evidence of the artistic abilities of the ancient Finns. Peices of woven material, various trinkets and tools show interesting forms and decorative patterns. Lately, a special handicraft industry has been established to study and to reproduce old jewelry and other articles, and these so-called "Kalevala-trinkets" have become very popular among Finnish women.

531 [322] The Finnish men, especially in western Finland, have been skillful in carving and making decorative furniture. Certain parts of the country have excelled in special skills; for example, in Ostrobothnia there existed a long

531 line of clockmakers, whose products were re-
531 nowned for their accuracy. Another district in
391 Ostrobothnia is famous for the typical Finnish
knives, or daggers, called puukko, which are
marvelously sharp besides being nicely decorated.
The manufacture of these knives is still flourish-
ing, and the special process used in tempering
the blade is kept a family secret. Almost every
Finnish man carries a puukko at his belt--not for
any violent purpose, but just as a handy tool--
and every foreign tourist purchases one or
322 several of them for a keepsake. Another branch
481 of handicraft requiring special skill is the making
of skis. There are several masters of this art
in various parts of the country. The traditional
Finnish skis are made of extra thin birch wood
which is curved delicately by heating before a

322 481 fire and is then tarred for better glide. As the skis are intended for cross-country skiing, uphill as well as downhill travel, they must be very light and carefully constructed.

286 As is to be expected, women have maintained a greater interest in handicraft than the men. Practically every farmhouse has a hand loom, and this is not rare even among the city families. Traditional skills are promoted and developed by various schools for weaving and sewing which are quite well attended. 531 286 The Karelian women have of old been famous for their embroideries and lacy weaving patterns, the western Finnish women for their decorative linens and rugs. In certain localities lace-making has developed into a real occupation; the most famous among these is the small

531 seashore city of Rauma in southwestern Finland,
286 where the skill has been preserved since the Middle Ages as an inheritance from the nuns in the city's cloister. The most magnificent products of Finnish handicraft, however, are the so-called ryijy rugs. The weaving of these has been limited to western Finland, especially in the provinces of Häme and Satakunta. The Finnish museums have several hundreds of them, and as many are found in private homes all over the country. These rugs are made of wool by the process of tying small pieces of different
[386] colors next to each other to form a pattern. The women dye their wool with colors extracted from plant roots and leaves. Both the colors and the patterns give proof of a refined taste and artistic imagination. The ryijys were originally

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meant for bedcovers, and every girl had several of them in her dowery. Today the ryijys are used as tapestries or rugs, and since the beginning of this century interest in them has been considerable. Old patterns are copied and new ones created by design artists, and it is difficult to find a Finnish home without a specimen, good or bad, of this native art.

292 The native costumes also reflect the people's artistic taste. In most localities they were already abandoned from everyday use more than a century ago, but they are still commonly worn by girls and women during summer for festive occasions. The men, on the contrary, do not want to don breeches, striped weskits and buckle shoes except for folk dancing exhibitions. As for the women's dresses, almost

292 every rural locality has its own style, so that traditionally the home of the wearer could be ascertained on the basis of her costume, although certain basic features are common to all. Bright blues, reds and greens are favored, and wool and linen are used as material, with an occasional silk scarf added for extra finery. The costumes also have their special necklaces, brooches or other jewelry.

The women's costumes in western Finland consist of a white linen blouse, usually decorated with hemstitching or other embroidery, a wide, pleated skirt, generally striped, and a tight-fitting weskit in one of the colors occurring in the skirt. A white embroidered apron is usually added. On their heads the girls traditionally wear a ribbon, while married women wear

292 small embroidered caps edged with lace. The eastern Finnish costume usually has the weskit and the skirt in one piece; embroideries are used more lavishly, and the traditional married woman's headdress consists of a white linen veil completely covering the hair. Today the veil is never used, and, in general, when choosing a national costume, nothing prevents a woman from wearing one originating in a locality far away from her own, if she prefers to do so.

532 The Finnish art industry is at a very high level, as demonstrated by several Grand Prix winners at international exhibitions. Since the beginning of this century industrial concerns have begun to employ artists as designers for their products, and in this way a commercial art industry was originated. The Finns have

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531 The Finns have excelled in textiles, glass and china, but furniture and certain forms of metal work also deserve mention.

815 Intellectual Expression. Organized scientific research could hardly be initiated in Finland prior to the founding of the University of Turku, and even afterwards the achievements of the Finns were seldom distinguished separately, since Finnish scholars were regarded as Swedes in the eyes of the outside world. Towards the end of the eighteenth century Finland, however, produced a couple of eminent scholars. One of these was Antti Chydenius, a minister and member of the Diet, who, prior and unknown to Adam Smith, set forth the principles of economic liberalism and defended in his pamphlets the basic liberties of the individual.

814 basic liberties of the individual. The other one, Henrik Gabriel Porthan, a professor at the University of Turku called the "Father of Finnish History," was the first to study the history of Finland separately from that of Sweden. Porthan was the beginner of many other branches of national science as well, e. g. of the study of Finnish language and folklore, and his influence on posterity was enormous. As a result of Porthan's activities scientific research in Finland still is concentrated on the study of subjects relating to Finland and her own people. The founder of Finno-Ugric linguistic research was Matias Aleksanteri Castren, who established the internal kinship relationships within this language family. Folkloristic research began with Julius and Kaarle Krohn, father and son, who

814 created the geographic-comparative method and made Finland the pioneer country in this
815 field. In modern Finland work is carried on in these and in all other fields of science, and a number of Finns have achieved international fame for their achievements in geology, forestry, mathematics, and biochemistry. Lack of capital is hampering the work of many talented men and women, although state support and the contributions of cultural funds have been of great help. A considerable number of Finnish scholars, however, have left the country to teach in foreign universities.

It is impossible in Finland to make a living solely in scholarly or artistic activity--except for the dozen or so members of the Academy of Finland. Some kind of a profession is inevitable, and many of the most prominent scholars

815 have been teaching at a university or, as professorships are limited in number, holding positions far beneath their abilities. Intellectuals and artists are generally highly esteemed, but theirefforts are not likely to bring them much material reward. Being a scholar in Finland oftentimes means personal sacrifice, but this does not seem to diminish the interest in scientific research.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1j,

Sociological Background

EDUCATION

871 Schools have existed in Finland from the early Middle Ages. Children were taught by monks in the cloisters, and in Turku there was a cathedral school for educating priests for the Church. Those wanting to pursue higher studies attended the universities in South and Central Europe, and the number of Finns in these institutions was proportionally high.

The reformation put an emphasis upon the education of the common people, and, as mentioned [212] in Subparagraph 1k, by the end of the seventeenth century literacy was already widespread in western Finland. As everywhere in Scandinavia, public education still holds an important position in the whole cultural development of the

871 country.

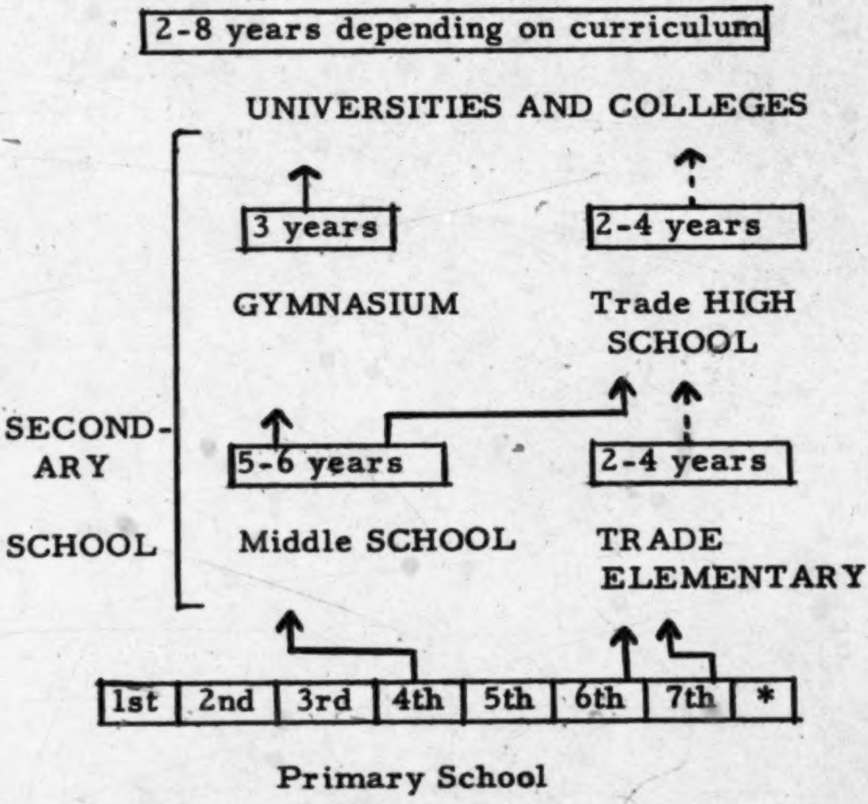
In the course of the last century education was transferred from the Church to the care of State

212 and the municipalities. Although school atten-

871 dance did not become compulsory until 1921, after Finland had obtained its independence, the people have for a long time been literate, all layers of the society included, even the semi-nomadic Lapps. Today illiteracy is kept at under one per cent, one of the lowest percentages in the world, and in practice the Finnish system of education has proved second to none, although, of course, there are always possibilities for reform.

871 The schools can be divided into three groups: 1) primary schools; 2) secondary schools, which are subdivided into middle schools and gymnasiums; and 3) the universities. Every child

871 between the ages of seven to sixteen must attend school. The following scheme shows the stages and the interrelations in the Finnish educational system:


2-8 years depending on curriculum
UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES
3 years
2-4 years
GYMNASIUM
Trade HIGH SCHOOL
SECONDARY SCHOOL
5-6 years
2-4 years
Middle SCHOOL
TRADE ELEMENTARY
1st
2nd
3rd
4th
5th
6th
7th
*
Primary School

*Continuation School

872 The primary school, called the folk school, is municipal, and every commune must provide

872 schools enough for all children in the compulsory age group to attend and at a distance which will not be too great for daily travel. Everything is free, including tuition, books and other supplies, health care and a warm meal once a day. The primary schools are co-educational and have seven grades, with an additional year of continuation classes. The basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic are learned in the two lowest grades; after this, the curriculum is broadened with geography, history, nature study and special classes in handicraft. Religion, of course, is taught through all grades in the primary as well as in secondary school, and increasing attention is given to the so-called "free subjects," such as music, drawing and sports.

000 All children complete four grades of folk

P73 All children complete four grades of folk school, and after that those who want a higher educational training transfer to secondary schools at the age of ten or eleven. They must pass an entrance examination, the competition for which is quite keen, since there may be as many as twice as many applicants as can be accepted. The secondary schools are either State schools or private schools aided by the State for up to 60 per cent of their expenses. The State schools may be either exclusively for boys or for girls or coeducational, while almost all private schools are coeducational. The following scheme shows the number of secondary schools and their attendance in the year 1945:

State Schools

	Finnish	Swedish	Number of Students
Noraml lyceums	2	1	1,894

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Lyceums for boys, classical and others	26	4	11,659
Lyceum for girls,	13	1	6,146
Coeducational lyceums	18	5	8,130
Girls' Schools	10	3	3,986
Middle Schools (coeducational)	9	2	2,625

Private Schools

Coeducational lyceums	66	18	28,510
Lyceums for girls	6	4	2,366
Coeducational and girls' schools	81	4	12,170

Thus the combined number of students in secondary schools was 77,486, 34,440 attending [369] State schools and 43,046 private schools. Almost all schools in the rural areas are coeducational; in the cities girls by far outnumber the boys in the coeducational schools, for, 873 strangely enough, most parents favor a boys' school for their sons and a coeducational school for their daughters. The schools called lyceums give training both on the middle school and on the gymnasium level, while those referred to in the above chart as schools have only middle school classes.

Children in secondary school must pay for their tuition and books. This system has repeatedly been criticized as unfitting for a democratic country like Finland, in which all children should have an equal chance for a higher education. In practice, however, school fees are no handicap. Especially in the State schools, they are as low as to be merely nominal, and up to 50 per cent of the pupils are exempted from even these fees, as determined by actual need, rather than scholarship. A real problem, on

873
[369]
the other hand, is the fact that there still are no secondary schools in many rural communes, and keeping the child at school away from home proves too difficult because of the everyday living expenses. In addition, many farming families can ill afford to lose the working help represented by a child. Recently there have been plans to change the school system so that every commune will have a secondary school, free and compulsory for all children, and divided into two sections: one with an emphasis on intellectual, the other on practical subjects. The realization of this reform is largely a financial question.

In addition to the subjects included in the curriculum of the primary schools, the secondary schools also teach foreign languages and more advanced mathematics. The middle school lasts

874 The middle school lasts from five to six years, and if the child wants to leave school at this stage, he can continue in several trade institutes. There are corresponding institutes based on the completion of the folk school as well, and a talented pupil can even this way work himself up to the university level. 873 The three highest grades in the secondary school, called the gymnasium, are preparatory for the university, and can more or less be compared to the junior colleges in America. New subjects are added to the curriculum, among others at least one more foreign language. An adequate knowledge of at least two foreign languages, not including Swedish, is indispensable for higher studies in a country like Finland, where very few books needed in the university can be obtained in one's own language.

Successful work in the secondary schools, 873 especially at the gymnasium level, requires much effort on the part of the pupil. A student who fails in one subject during the school year can make up his work during the summer vacation, and, by passing an examination in the fall, he may be permitted to move up to the next grade. If his work is unsatisfactory in several subjects, he must stay in the same grade for another year. At the end of the last grade in the gymnasium there is a period of three months in which the students are examined on the whole curriculum of the secondary school and must pass a four-part written matriculation examination in essay writing, mathemematics or humanistic subjects, in one foreign language, and in the other native language, i. e. Swedish or Finnish. This examination is administered by a central board appointed by the Ministry of Education and is

873 the same for all students throughout the country. The examination can be taken again the next fall if failed the first time, but the percentage of those rejected is fairly high, up to 25 per cent in some years. Those who pass the examination have the right to wear the coveted white student's cap, alike for both boys and girls, and are regarded as "free academic citizens."

874 The matriculation examination is a prerequisite for entrance in a university or college, but in addition many departments require entrance examinations. No general courses are offered at the university; specialization begins right away, and the student is left to progress at his own speed and at his own responsibility. No credit system exists, but the students must attend certain classes, seminars and laboratories, and show in several examinations that he has

874 acquired a mastery of his chosen field. Study for the Magister Philosophiae or the Master's degree (in most departments no lower degrees are given) takes from two to five years, depending on the curriculum and on the abilities of the individual. Medical studies require the longest time, up to eight years, until the student reaches the licentiate degree, which is required of all practicing doctors.

Anyone who has obtained the Master's degree with a "laudatur," the highest grade, in two separate subjects is qualified to become a candidate for the Doctor's degree without attending any more classes or passing further examinations. The writing of the dissertation, however, requires several years, for it must display original scholarship and contribute something new to the field. It must also be published in

874 several hundred copies--a severe obstacle for many candidates. The scholarships available are too few and to inadequate to allow the candidate to concentrate wholly upon his work, and it is rare that anybody, no matter how talented, can achieve a Doctor's degree in less than ten years after completing his Master's. If has been suggested that the requirements should be lowered for both the Master's and the Doctor's degree or some lower degrees established, since too many students seem to be unable to comclude their studies.

Colleges and universities operating during the academic year 1950-51 were:

	Number of students
University of Helsinki	8,945
University of Turku	534
Åbo Akademi	445

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Technological Institute of Finland	2,194
University of Commerce	845
Turku College of Commerce	75
Swedish College of Business	363
Business School of Åbo Akademi	151
College of Social Science	620
Swedish Citizens' College	47
College of Veterinary Medicine	118
Teachers' College in Jyväskylä	294
Pro team Teachers' College in Helsinki	245
Pro team Teachers' College in Turku	189

The total number of students in colleges and universities was 15,065, 37.71 per cent of which were women. Women outnumbered men in the teachers' colleges and in the College of Social Science, which prepares social workers, 874 journalists and librarians.

The University of Helsinki is by far the most important institute of higher studies in Finland. Founded in 1640 (until 1827 situated in Turku) it has the following faculties and departments: theology, law, medicine, history and philology, political science, mathematics and natural sciences, agriculture and forestry, physical education, and pharmacy. There are two private universities in Turku, the Finnish language University of Turku with its three faculties: humanities, mathematics and natural sciences, and medicine, and the Swedish language Åbo Akademi which has the following departments: humanities, mathematics and natural sciences, political science, chemistry and technology, and theology. The Technological Institute of Finland (in Helsinki) is divided into the following

874 departments: structural engineering, electrotechnology, woodworking, chemistry, industrial mining, surveying, architecture, and general science.

875 The training of primary school teachers takes place in special schools, called seminaries, which are based either on a completed primary school or a completed middle school education; in addition there are two-year teachers' colleges on the university level. In order to obtain a permanent position in a State secondary school, the applicant must have a Master's degree in the subjects taught and two semesters' training in one of the normal lyceums. Private secondary schools, in order to obtain State support, must have a certain percentage of fully qualified teachers on their staffs.

The importance of vocational schools has

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P74 The importance of vocational schools has lately been steadily increasing, and new schools have been established. But still their number is not sufficient. The most important groups of trade schools and their enrollments in 1950-51 were:

	Number	Enrollment
Technical Schools	17	4,000
Vocational Schools	102	14,300
Commercial Schools	63	6,000
Schools of Navigation	7	200
Agricultural Schools	58	1,900
Schools of Stock-Breeding	29	920
Dairy Schools	4	100
Horticultural Schools	5	140
Schools of Forestry	7	400
Schools of Domestic Arts and Crafts	122	2,200

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Schools for Hospital and Public Health Nurses	11	520
Institutes of Hygiene and Midwifery	2	320
Institutes for Nursery Schools Teachers	1	110
Sibelius Academy (Music School)	1	640
Schools of Dramatic Art	2	30

873
369 An important role in public education is played by the numerous (81) peoples' high schools --a unique Scandinavian development--which operated as boarding schools and offer courses of one or two years, intended especially for rural youth. The emphasis here is on a general education and on practical subjects, and these institutions have achieved good results in raising the living standards and the general cultural level in rural areas. In the cities there are

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369 workers' academies, mostly operating as night schools. The enrollment in the peoples' high schools in 1951 was 4000, and at the workers' academies 34,000.

873 Many use the opportunity for studying through correspondence, and in 1951 the two largest correspondence schools had a total of 27,500 pupils. In addition, there are numerous study circles, 1,865 in 1951, with an aggregate membership of at least 40,000.

658 The total number of libraries in Finland is around 3,000, and these are maintained by the communes with State aid. On the basis of the number of books borrowed (3.3 per capita in the cities and 0.9 in rural areas) and sold at the book stores annually, the Finns are estimated to read more books than any other people in the world.

873 Higher education has been valued by the Finns for centuries, and the number of students in secondary schools and universities is proportionally greater in Finland than in Sweden; comparisons with any other country are difficult to make because of differences in educational systems. Parents are encouraged to send their children to the vocational schools, which frequently provide opportunities to better financial [554] positions than the middle school; however, attendance at a secondary school still provides a certain social prestige, and for this reason many parents struggle to keep their children here even when they lack the necessary intellectual ability and show no interest in theoretical studies. As a result, the number of secondary schools is too small to admit more than about two-thirds of the applicants, and the number of people with

873 a higher education tends to be too great for the
815 country's needs. In certain fields, however, there exists a chronic lack of competent trained people. This is especially true of teachers both in primary and secondary schools, as the salaries are not considered adequate to support a family or to compensate for the years spent in preparation.

815 Lack of capital has hampered the founding of research institutes which would employ talented scientists for work in their special fields. The most prominent among the institutes existing is the Vihuri Foundation for medical research. An important event was the establishment of the Academy of Finland in 1947, an institution maintained by the State to promote creative work in the arts and sciences. There are 12 chairs in the Academy: 4 for representatives

of natural sciences, 3 for theoretical sciences, 3 for the arts and letters, and 2 variable seats. Members are appointed by the president, and they have as their only duty to concentrate on scientific work and to advise young, promising scholars.

Several scientific societies also are active in promoting scholarly work and issuing a number of publications. The most important among these societies are: the Finnish Academy of Science, the Historical Society, the Ecclesiastical History Society, the Ecclesiastical History Society, the Finnish Literary Society, Swedish Literary Society, Finno-Ugric Society, Archaeological Society, Geographical Society, Societas pro fauna et flora Fennica, Zoological and Botanical Society Vanamo, Society of Chemists, Medical Association, Society of Veterinary Surgeons, 815 Society for Jurisprudence, Economic Society, Silvicultural Society, Oriental Society, Geneological Society, Pedagogical Society, Neo-Philological Society, Society of Economics, Society of Social Politics, Society of Political Science, Society for Popular Education, and, finally, the Westermarck Society.

871 Education in Finland is traditionally based on a national and humanistic basis. The State has not interfered with it ideologies, and even today it is unaffected by political controversies, with the exception of some peoples' high schools operated by political parties (by Communists and

668 Agrarians respectively). As mentioned above, there have always been extremely few Finns with a higher education who ever held communist views, and university students have traditionally been leaders in patriotic movements. In the thirties

668 these movements sometimes showed chauvinsitic 186 tendencies; e. g., a resentment towards Sweden was rife among the Finnish-speaking students as a result of language controversies in their own country. Perhaps because of the isolated position of Finland, there have been few prejudices [648] against foreigners as individuals. Furthermore, the aversion towards Russia and the Russians has, on the whole, been almost identical with Finnish nationalism.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1k,

Sociological Background

RELIGION

771 The ancient Finns evidently worshipped the
spirits of their ancestors and the powers of
nature, many of which were personified. All the
same, they never had such a clearcut hierarchy
of gods as their Scandinavian neighbors, nor did
782 they build any temples for their deities. The
sacrificial ceremonies were conducted in sacred
769 glens, and trees were lopped to commemorate
the dead, who otherwise might have proved
779 harmful for their surviving relatives. Roman
771 Catholicism, which was established in the
country at the time of the Swedish conquest, did
not penetrate very deeply into the consciousness
of the people, especially so far as distant parts
of Finland were concerned. The reformer of

771 The reformer of
Finland, Bishop Michael Agricola, in one of his
books gives a long list of deities worshipped by
the Tavastians and the Karelians respectively,
which shows that at the time (around 1550) pagan
beliefs and practices were still well remem-
538 bered. The old epic poetry of the Finns displays
an original mixture of pagan and Christian con-
ceptions, and many of the Bible stories and
Christian legends are turned into charming
795 mythical ballads. All the same, the Catholic
Church was an important influence in Finland
both religiously and politically all through the
[793] Middle Ages. The bishops of Finland, mostly
native Finns, were as a whole able and influen-
tial men who used their position in the council
of the King to work selflessly for the benefit of
their country and people.

795
771 The reformation was carried out in Finland
without much controversy, and in 1593 Sweden-

795 771 Finland officially adopted the Lutheran creed.
The bishops and ministers worked energetically
for the uprooting of the pagan beliefs and succeeded
in extinguishing the old poetry (which
was supposed to have been inspired by the devil)
212 795 in the western parts of the country. The Lutheran
Church attached much importance to the
instruction of the people and it deserves credit
[582] for effectively teaching the Finns to read. The
ability to read and to write and a knowledge of
the fundamental doctrines of the Church were
made prerequisite for anyone wishing to enter
matrimony, and slow readers were punished by
being placed in stocks before the church on Sundays.
Thus, in the western parts of the country,
literacy was already quite common towards the
end of the seventeenth century.

795 Even today the Lutheran Church holds by far

795 the most important position in the religious life of Finland. Since 1923 there has been complete freedom of religion, but only a few have withdrawn from the Church, and other denominations (not including the Greek Catholics), openly permitted since 1880, have very small memberships.

162 In 1948 the distribution of the different religious groups among the citizens of Finland was as follows:

Lutherans	3,998,344 persons (95.8 per cent of the entire population)
Others (total)	177,392 persons (4.2 per cent)
In Civil Register (not belonging to any church)	90,341
Greek Catholics	71,123
Free Lutherans	5,441
Seventh Day Adventists	2,671

162	Baptists	2,138
	Methodists	2,107
	Jewish	1,535
	Roman Catholics	1,163
	Moslems	621
	Free Catholics	135
	Mormons	80
	Jehovah's Witnesses	26
	Anglicans	11

771 Since every child from birth is automatically categorized according to the belief of his parents, these numbers by no means indicate the percentage of active church membership. The majority consists of indifferent members, who go to church occasionally and who have the minister to officiate only at baptism, marriage and burial. There exist no statistics on regular church attendance, but it should be around 10

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771 to 20 per cent of the population, with wide local
deviations. It is to be remembered, however,
that these numbers in Finland reflect circumstances different from those in Central Europe,
771 for example. The country is so sparsely popula-
369
ted that some people are as far away as 50 kilometers from the nearest church, with no modern
means of communication at their disposal. These
people prefer to listen to radio services instead.
Most of the people in the cities too, and especially those who rarely go to church, listen
regularly to Sunday services and daily prayer
771 hours on the radio. As a whole, religion and
the churches have a much more profound influence on the Finns than is noticeable from
superficial observation. Going to church here
is not a social custom but a demonstration of
personal religious need.

[181] 771 The Finns are often described as by nature religious people, inclined to metaphysical meditation, but at the same time calm and composed in their demonstrations. Indeed, deep religiosity still is characteristic of a considerable part of the population. This has been nourished and supported by the great revival movements which originated in the last century and still have a decisive role in the religious life of Finland. They all have had a remarkable national character and have been little affected by influence from abroad. The most important among these is the so-called pietistic movement in the provinces of Savo and Ostrobothnia. Although in the beginning opposed by both State and Church, these movements do not show any separatistic tendencies; on the contrary, they stress the unity of the church and adhere to the Lutheran doctrine, each

771 movement having its own interpretation of the doctrine. Now most of the ministers count themselves into one or another of these religious movements, which sometimes causes controversy in the congregations, since all the members do not hold the same views. A common feature for all these religious movements is the significance placed on personal religious life. The simple life and abstinence from "earthly" pleasures, including alcohol, dancing and cards, is required by them of anyone wanting to be a true Christian. But these followers with their strict religious beliefs also make good citizens with their high moral standards, their industry, and their interest in the affairs of country and community. Strong patriotism is characteristic of these people, who are by no means opposed to military service. On the contrary, the pietistic farmers

771 in Ostrobothnia were actually the first to take arms at the outbreak of the Finnish War of Independence.

771 795 A study of the specific religious faiths does not reflect any ethnic differences. The majority of the Greek Catholics are to be found among the Karelians, formerly living in the easternmost communities of Finland, and those in the Civil Register are predominantly city people, partly radical-minded intellectuals, partly workers with communist views. In many cases the reasons for leaving the Church have been economic, for those listed in the Civil Register are exempted from the taxes collected by the Church. The fact that despite this economic factor there has never been any mass movement away from the Church reflects the influence which the fathers' faith still has over the people.

796 Divine Services are held every Sunday morn-
ing, and in the cities in the evening also. The
sermon, of course, comprises the central part
of the service, but the liturgy is rich, and on
special holidays the officiating minister or min-
isters wear decorative cassocks over their or-
[533] dinary black cloaks. Great importance is placed
on singing, and the hymnal contains many exam-
ples of Finnish religious folk music. A divine
service, especially in the mediaeval stone or
brick churches, is an impressive occasion.

346 There are altogether about seventy of these old
churches descending from Catholic times and
located in the southern and central parts of the
country. They are interesting and beautiful
pieces of native architecture, decorated with
wooden sculpture and colorful wall paintings.
The most impressive of them all is the great

346 cathedral in Turku, built in the thirteenth century and surely one of the most beautiful churches in the north of Europe. The tradition of church building has been carried on, and some of the most modern examples of church architecture are to be found in Finland.

794 In addition to churches the congregations[1] build chapels and prayer houses in distant regions of the parishes, and also community centers, homes for the old and disabled, etc. On the other hand, there are no schools operated by the Church except for the training of its social workers, deacons and deasonesses and its Sunday school teachers. For the training of the deaconesses, the Church supports four hospitals
797 in different parts of the country. It also is active in missionary work in South Africa, China (until recently), Japan and Palestine, and has

[1] [ie: Greek Catholic--Analyst]

797 missionary centers and churches working among the Finnish sailors and emigrants in various parts of the world.

795
659 The Church of Finland has a position midway between an established and a free Church. The highest administrative authority belongs by law to the President of the Republic and to the State government, but at the same time the Church has considerable powers of self government, much more so than the Lutheran churches in neighboring Scandinavia. Legislative power is exercised by the Church Assembly, which has 115 representatives, the majority of them laymen. The laws passed by the Assembly must be ratified by the Diet, which can either accept or reject them, but which is not entitled to make any al-
795 terations. The highest administrative organs for the church are the Enlarged Bishops'

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795 Meeting with 31 members and the Ecclesiastic
Board, consisting of six persons, mostly min-
isters and jurists, and handling economic as
well as legal matters. The Ecclesiastic Board
794 is in charge of the Central Church Fund. The
majority of the congregations[1] are self sufficient,
as they have the right to tax their members and
to use the income for their own needs: for the
salaries of the ministers and other church per-
sonnel, for the upkeep of church buildings and
cemeteries, and for social work. The wealthiest
congregations, however, contribute a certain
percentage of their income to the Central Fund
to help those who are not able to meet their own
needs. About one-sixth of the congregations,
mostly located in the northern and eastern regions
or in the western archipelago, need assistance
from the Central Fund. Before World War II

[1] [of the Church of Finland--Analyst]

794 the congregations were landowners, but at the present time most of their landed property has been split into estates for the displaced Karelian refugees.

The country is divided into six dioceses, each with a bishop and a chapter. One of the dioceses, to which all Swedish-speaking congregations belong, is administered in that language. The bishop of the Diocese of Turku is at the same time the Archbishop of Finland. The President of the Republic appoints the bishops on the basis of elections held in the diocese. The dioceses again are divided into deaneries (57 in 1952), the latter into congregations (547). The congregations, like the dioceses, are actually geographical units mostly coinciding with the municipal communities. Thus the congregations are often extremely large both in area and in number of

794 members, 4000 to 5000 on the average, and in the largest cities up to 50,000. The congregations elect their own church officials. Every congregation has a vicar and most of them, in addition, one or more chaplains and adjuncts, an organist, a songleader, and several social workers.

659
794 The State supports the six chapters[1] and pays the salary of the bishops and other diocese officials. Moreover, it contributes a certain amount of money to the Central Fund. In 1950 the total contributions of the State amounted to 22 million Finnish marks. The amount, however, is insignificant compared to the enormous savings to the State by the Church which, without compensation, takes care of the registration and book-keeping of the 96 per cent of the population which it counts as its members. The

[1] [of The Church of Finland--Analyst]

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The

659 874 793 State, on the other hand meets the costs of the Theological Faculty in the University of Helsinki, where the vast majority of the ministers receive their education. To keep the scholarship of the ministers on a high level, only those graduated from the theological faculties of the University of Helsinki or of the Swedish-speaking university in Turku can be ordained as officiating ministers.

871 659 The State also arranges instruction in religion in all grades of the primary and secondary schools according to the denomination of the children. The Greek Catholic children thus get special instruction; those outside the church need not be present at the lessons, although they usually prefer to attend the classes in religion.

795 The Greek Catholic Church has a position corresponding to that of the Lutheran. It also has a vast autonomy under the jurisdiction of

795 the Ecumenical Patriarch of Constantinople. There are two dioceses, each headed by a bishop. Most of the Greek Catholic congregations were situated in the area ceded to Russia after World War II. Now their 70,000 members live scattered all over the country.

798 771 Thus the Finns represent a religiously uniform group. There have been no religious persecutions, no fights between different denominations. The absence of influential religious minorities has no doubt contributed to the fact that there is little religious fanaticism, and religious considerations hardly influence the national attitude towards foreign countries--except for those in which religion has been officially abandoned and persecuted. And, of course, a common religion is apt further to strengthen the ties that connect Finland with the Scandinavian states.

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1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EO1 Finland EO1

Annex "A," Subparagraph 11,

Sociological Background

PUBLIC INFORMATION

204 Newspapers are still by far the most important media for disseminating news in Finland. Virtually every family subscribes to at least one daily newspaper and to several magazines. Educated people all over the country commonly subscribe to a Helsinki paper in addition to a

207 [205] local one. As distributor of the latest news, radio is indispensable in many rural areas where mail deliveries do not exceed two or three times a week. The news service, both for the papers and the radio, is comprehensive and quick.

546 Movies, on the other hand, have little importance in disseminating news. Newsreels are of actual value only in Helsinki and in other major cities, for when they arrive in the rural areas they are usually hope-227-lessly out-of-date.

207 they are usually hopelessly out-of-date. There is no television in Finland and probably will not 203 be for a number of years. Public address systems, megaphones, posters, pamphlets and leaflets play very little part in distributing news; [208] they are used mostly for political propaganda purposes. The Finns are not easily frightened or excited, and rumors among them are usually very short-lived. As a rule the rumors which do circulate are concerned with Finnish-Russian relations, but experience has taught that there is little reason to believe them.

204 The first newspaper (in Swedish) appeared in Finland in 1771, the first one in the Finnish language in 1776. The major newspapers of today have their origin in the political and national controversies of the last century. As a result, the daily newspapers in Finland mostly

have a distinctly political coloring and function as party organs. In reporting and analyzing foreign news, the papers are generally impartial and refrain from comments in favor of any foreign power-except, of course, the papers holding communistic views. But the news of Finland itself is too often slanted according to narrow party standards, and too many readers are influenced in this way. The magazines, on the other hand, are non-political publications for cultural or entertainment purposes, although some of them may express views colored by the party connections of their respective editors.

In 1954 the number of newspapers appearing in Finland at least twice a week was 118, 17 of them published in Swedish. The number of periodicals, appearing at the most once a week, was 945, making a total of 1063 publications in

204 all. These publications may be grouped as follows:

Daily	17
6 days a week	46
5 days a week	1
4 days a week	5
3 days a week	31
2 days a week	18
Weekly	117
Bi-weekly	72
Monthly	229
Bi-monthly	129
Quarterly	197

Of all the papers and journals 886 were in Finnish, 107 in Swedish, while 57 were bilingual and 13 appeared in foreign languages. The last-mentioned were mostly scientific publications in German, French, English, Russian

204 or Esperanto.

The most important newspapers in Finland are listed in the table on the following page.

Many of the older newspapers have changed their names and acquired their political coloring during the years of their publication.

Name	Party	Where Published	Date of Origin	Circulation
Helsingin Sanomat	Independent	Helsinki	1890	194, 000
Uusi Suomi	Nat. Coalition	Helsinki	1847	91, 000
Aamulehti	Nat. Coalition	Tampere	?	72, 000
Hufvudstadsbladet	Independent (Swedish)	Helsinki	1864	65, 000
Turun Sanomat	Finnish People's Party (Liberal)	Turku	1817	50, 000
Suomen Sosialidemokraatti	Social Democratic Party	Helsinki	1895	45, 000
Ilkka	Agrarian Union	Vaasa	1906	27, 000

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Työkansan Sanomat	Communist	Helsinki	1946	27,000
Vapaa Sana	People's Democratic Union (Communist controlled)	Helsinki	1944	26,000

Of the newspaper relecting interests other than political should be mentioned Karjala, an organ for the Karelian evacuees, with a circulation of about 60,000; Kotimaa, organ for the Church and religious interest groups, circulation about 50,000; and Yhteishyvä, a co-operative movement newspaper with over 200,000 readers.

The most noteworthy of the periodicals are Kotiliesi (The Home), a fortnightly designed for housewives, with a circulation of 210,000; Seura (The Companion), a weekly containing stories and articles on popular subjects,

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(nodate)1955 EOl Finland EOl

204 circulation 150,000; and Suomen Kuvalehti (Illustrated Journal), an illustrated weekly on timely topics, circulation 130,000. These periodicals are popular in all layers of society, in the cities as well as in rural areas.

214 The major publishing companies are Werner Söderström Osakeyhtiö (Porvoo and Helsinki), Kustannusosakehtiö Otava (Helsinki), K. J. Gummerus Osakeyhtiö (Jyväskylä and Helsinki) and Osakeyhtiö Tammi (Helsinki). These companies publish all types of literature, scientific as well as fiction, and school books. The amount of translated material published annually is very great. The two first-mentioned companies enjoy the greatest prestige, and they are also financially the most secure. The aggregate output of the publishing companies is at least 3000 new books a year, a large output for the size of the population.

000 size of the population.

207 Radios are common in Finnish homes; in 1952
there were 817,000 receivers, 202 per 1000
inhabitants reported in the country. The programs
broadcast by Oy Yleisradio Ab, a non-political,
non-commercial enterprise in which the State
holds 90 per cent of the shares. The costs of
operation are borne by the radio owners who
must buy a license each year in order to listen.
News is broadcast four times a day on a strictly
non-partisan basis, and résumés, without com-
ments, of editorials from the major newspapers
447 are also read. No advertising is permitted on
the air.

The company broadcasts on the average 4400 program hours in Finnish, 1100 hours in Swedish each year. In 1945 the Finnish programs were apportioned as follows:

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Music	46 per cent
News and announcements	13.4 per cent
Lectures, light discussions, interviews, school programs	18.9 per cent
Divine services	6.7 per cent
Radio plays	5.9 per cent
Special programs	3.9 per cent
Programs for children and young people	2.8 per cent
Miscellaneous entertainment	1.7 per cent
Foreign language transmissions	0.7 per cent

The radio stations in Finland in operation now are:

		Wave length (in meters)
Lahti	50 kilowatts	1875
Helsinki	10 kilowatts	211
Joensuu	1 kilowatt	968
Kuopio	20 kilowatts	569

207 Oulu	10 kilowatts	693
Pietarsaari	1 kilowatt	200
Pori	1 kilowatt	210
Tampere	1 kilowatt	201
Turku	40 kilowatts	335
Vaasa	10 kilowatts	197

The short wave stations in Finland are:

		Wave length (in meters)
Helsinki I	10 kilowatts	49.02
Pori	15 kilowatts	19.75
Lahti	15 kilowatts	31.58
Helsinki II	1 kilowatt	16.85

Lahti, Joensuu, Kuopio, Oulu, Pori and Tampere transmit the Finnish language program, the others the Swedish language program, when it [191] is given, 21 hours 15 minutes every week. The only minority language in Finland is Lappish, spoken by about 2000 people in the northernmost part of the country.

207 part of the country. For these people the station in Oulu broadcasts 15 minutes of news once a week and a divine service once a month in Lappish. The short wave stations Lahti and Pori are used for transmissions of an informative character in English and French. The big station of Lahti can be heard all over the country, and the stations in northern and central Europe are received by most radio sets, although language barriers, of course, put a limit to their popularity. An exception are the Swedish radio stations (Motala, Stockholm, Sundsvall) which are listened to widely in Finland. There is no information for how many Finns listen regularly to the programs in Finnish broadcast from abroad. During the war this practice was widespread, and the authorities made no limitations on it.

Types of privately owned radio receivers in 1946:

District	Battery receivers	Reception by net	Reception by crystal	Radio telephones	Altogether
Uusimaa	6, 901	131, 914	1, 126	890	140, 831
Turku-Pori	12, 649	82, 892	285	2	95, 828
Åland	1, 695	1, 626	-	1	3, 322
Häme	11, 095	70, 870	4, 042	-	86, 007
Kymi	5, 039	36, 102	165	1	41, 307
Mikkeli	10, 434	11, 505	357	-	22, 296
Kuopio	18, 144	20, 548	78	-	38, 770
Vaasa	14, 541	61, 205	16	-	75, 762

Oulu	9,395	17,608	467	-	27,470
Lappland	2,969	7,636	-	-	10,605

Geographical distribution of listeners in 1946:

District	Finnish-speaking	Swedish-speaking	Altogether
Uusimaa	107,962	38,130	146,092
Turku-Pori	91,924	7,453	99,377
Åland	9	3,424	3,433
Häme	88,091	354	88,445
Kymi	41,941	253	42,194
Mikkeli	22,737	5	22,742
Kuopio	40,211	15	40,226

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Vaasa	55, 829	20, 964	76, 793
Oulu	28, 916	32	28, 948
Lappland	12, 363	9	12, 372

Distribution of listeners according to occupation, in 1946:

Districts	Agri-culture	Industry	Trade	Communi-cations	Public Office	Others
Uusimaa	20, 078	56, 725	20, 780	14, 603	17, 691	10, 531
Turtu-Pori	33, 494	34, 164	7, 752	7, 560	7, 273	5, 455
Aland	1, 757	391	226	471	269	202
Häme	22, 995	36, 896	7, 036	7, 465	6, 693	4, 719
Kymi	11, 632	17, 076	2, 599	4, 619	3, 341	1, 980

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Mikkeli	11,303	4,619	1,710	2,087	1,621	866
Kuopio	17,839	9,635	2,980	3,250	3,444	1,548
Vaasa	34,123	21,185	5,977	5,675	5,372	3,329
Oulu	11,625	7,430	2,275	2,605	2,221	1,261
Lappland	3,243	3,508	933	1,611	879	242

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Any information activities originating outside the country are of minor importance. The major foreign embassies--the British, the American and the French--arrange lectures and exhibition and make available literature for representing the culture and achievements of their respective countries, but these activities are almost entirely limited to Helsinki and the educated circles, who have a command of these foreign languages.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1m,

Sociological Background

LABOR FORCE

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In the beginning of the twentieth century about 80 per cent of the population of Finland won a livelihood from agriculture, but since then a strong industrialization has taken place. This development was especially noticeable between the two world wars, and after the armistice of 1944 several factors, e.g. the payments of war indemnity to Russia and the rehabilitation of the Karelians, only accelerated the process. While in 1940 53.7 per cent of the entire population was employed in agriculture, including forestry and fishing, 33.1 per cent in industry, and 13.2 per cent in other occupations, the corresponding figures in 1950 were 42 per cent each for agriculture and industry and 16 per cent for the rest.

178 for the rest. Since the population has been steadily growing and the possibilities for expanding the agricultural potential are limited, the excess manpower is likely to seek work in indus- [438] trial activities. Finnish industry is based on the old handicraft, which was fairly developed already during the Middle Ages, but today home industry is vastly overshadowed by mass production.

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Regional distribution of industry. The old skills of handicraft often were concentrated in specific areas of the country (Subparagraph li)[1] but the modern machine industry is rather evenly distributed all over southern and central Finland, especially in the districts of Uusimaa and Häme, where the number of industrial workers is about 10 per cent of the total population. Of the cities,

[1] [See pages 170-174, Cat. 116 --Analyst]

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369 Tampere has the highest percentage of industrial workers (25 per cent of the inhabitants), while the district of Kymi heads the list for the rural areas. The largest industrial concerns also are situated in this area, due to the availability of water power as well as the relatively dense population.

Heavily industrialized centers are the three largest cities, Helsinki, Turku and Tampere, with their surroundings. Other centers are the areas around the rivers Kymi, Vuoksi and
[327]Kokemäenjoki. The metal industry is especially
[322]concentrated in the cities, and the wood industry in the river areas because of the available transportation facilities. In the last few years great progress has been made in the industrialization of Lappland, where the greatest resources of the country's water power are to be found, and

438 369 in the future more and more plants are likely to be established in this area.

221 313 Seasonal migrations. There is a seasonal migration of the working force towards northern Finland during the winter and early spring, when about 200,000 men are occupied in logging activities. Many small-holders in the central and southern parts of the country leave their homes for the winter months to look for welcome addition earnings in the vast forests of the North. [423] More than 60 per cent of the lumber jacks are independent landowners.

463 Labor supply and production. In 1949 the labor force permanently employed in industry was divided into different industrial groups as follows:

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	Number of workers	Percentage of total labor force in industry
Metal industry	82,699	31.9
Stone, clay and glass industry	15,949	6.2
Chemical industry	5,857	2.3
Leather and rubber industries	13,169	5.1
Textile and clothing industries	41,131	15.9
Paper industry	20,814	8.0
Wood industry	46,899	18.1
Foodstuffs, beverage and tobacco industries	19,287	7.4
Power and electric plants, gas and water works	4,755	1.8
Printing industry	8,341	3.2
Other industries	242	0.1

000 The greatest increase of employment in

327 The greatest increase of employment in
464 recent years has been in the metal industry, due to the war reparations which had to be delivered principally in the form of machines, ships, loco-
466 motives, etc. After World War II production and working capacity showed a serious decline and, to help matters, Factory Committees were established, consisting of representatives of the employer, the workers and the staff. A Factory Committee forms a kind of advisory body dealing with questions relating to the economy and output of the industry, labor conditions, the effective use of fuel and raw materials, and proper marketing of the products. It also strives to promote the professional skill of the laborers and serves as arbitrator in labor disputes.

r33 The gross value of the output by the various industrial groups in 1949 ranked as follows:

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	Mill. marks	Percentage of output value
Metal industry	67.927	26.0
Stone, clay and glass industries	10,808	4.1
Chemical industry	8,979	3.5
Leather and rubber industries	30,176	11.6
Paper industry	41,652	16.0
Wood industry	38,866	14.9
Foodstuffs, beverage and tobacco industries	40,403	15.5
Power and electric plants, gas and water works	6,630	2.5
Printing industry	4,654	1.8
Other industries	133	0.1

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241 The productivity of agriculture in Finland is comparatively low, primarily because of the harsh climatic conditions. Especially after the

433 241 last war the loss of the Karelian territory--
among the most fertile in Finland--the lack of
labor power and fertilizer, and particularly un-
favorable weather conditions played havoc with
231 agriculture. Livestock raising is not hampered
by the climate to the same extent as is farming,
and in pre-war years Finland was an important
433 exporter of dairy products. The following table
439 241 shows the output of some agricultural products
in 1936-39 and 1951 in mill. kgs. (+ = imports,
- = exports).

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Year	Wheat	Rye	Barley	Oats	Potatoes	Butter	Cheese	Beef	Pork	Eggs
1936-1939, av.	210	353	189	754	1337	55	10	52	56	18
	+ 88	+ 45	+ 1	+ 11	+ 2	- 15	- 6	- 1	- 3	- 8
1951	291	234	187	722	1210	58	15	69	55	15
	+ 190	+ 114	+ 6	+ 17	-	- 8	- 8	-	+ 1	+ 1

241 407 Since the war agriculture and animal husbandry have improved considerably. This is shown, for example, in the increase in the number of tractors from the pre-war 3000 to 16,000 and of milking machines from a negligible number to over 3000. The terrain, however, limits the use of machinery in agriculture. Except for the Ostrobothnian coastal area there are no vast plains in Finland, but the fields are cleared out in

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EOI Finland EOI

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scattered patches among hills and forests. The farmers are usually quite eager to try new [476] machines and to improve their methods, and they form co-operative units for procuring tractors and other expensive equipment.

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In 1940 the percentage of the non-independent population i. e. people depending on others for an income, as compared to the total number of people in each occupation was 39 per cent in the rural areas, 73 per cent in the cities. They were distributed among different occupations in the following way:

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	Male	Female	Percentage of group total	Rural	Urban
Agriculture....	157,867	140,222	25.8	295,382	2,707
Industry.......	226,572	94,628	85.9	176,068	149,132
Transport......	46,473	7,143	74.8	25,992	27,614
Commerce.......	18,913	38,503	52.0	15,512	41,904
Public services..	26,031	25,225	44.6	16,921	34,335
Unspecified.....	65,322	39,492		75,842	28,932

464 A fairly large percentage--no exact numbers are available--of the working manpower consists of unskilled and seasonal labor. Skilled workers have been in great demand and have been able to command

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(nodate)1955 EOI Finland EOI

464 excellent salaries, especially the carpenters and metal workers.

462 The number of women employed in industry has been steadily increasing. In 1910 it was 36.5 per cent, in 1940 43.1 per cent of all persons engaged in industry. During the war years the percentage of women workers rose over 50 per cent, to return afterwards to the pre-war level. In 1946 there were 87,682 woemn employed in industry, 37.0 per cent of the total number of 236,723.

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464 It is prohibited to employ child labor (children under 15) in industry, and the adolescent workers (under 18) are specially protected. It is prohibited also to employ adolescents for dangerous machine work, handling heavy loads, or working in mines and quarries. They are not kept at work after 7:00 P. M., and their day may not begin before 7:00 A.M.

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843 begin before 7:00 A. M. Expectant mothers also are specially protected. Heavy work is prohibited to them, and an employer is not permitted to give notice to a woman because of pregnancy. Moreover, expectant mothers are allowed a twelve-week paid vacation, starting not later than a month before the expected date of delivery.

466 Workers usually retire at the age of seventy, unless disabled by sickness or accident. Experience during war years showed that women and old people form a reserve labor force which may be successfully used in case of need.

464 Unemployment. Finland has never been plagued by chronic unemployment. Collecting of data did not begin until the depression years, from 1929 on, and in February, 1932, the number

464 of registered unemployed was 91,778, the highest ever noted in Finland, representing 2.4 per cent of the population. The situation, however, improved rapidly, and in the late thirties unemployment was virtually unknown. After the last war the number of men declaring themselves as unemployed was not more than 12,500, and in a year it had decreased to 2,600. But in 1948 the situation took a sharp turn for the worse, and during the working season of 1952-53 unemployment reached its peak, with 46,100 persons without work by the end of 1953. During the following year, however, the situation was brought under control, and by the end of 1954 unemployment had virtually disappeared.

465 Wages and benefits. Wages were low at the beginning of the century, but there has been a

465 sharp rise, especially in those groups which formerly occupied the lowest-paid positions. During the period 1914-39 the wages of male agricultural workers increased over 17 times; by 1942, 43 times; and those of female agricultural workers, 38 times. The increase for loggers was by 1950 over 15 times, for industrial workers 12 times for men, and 14 times for women. The basic salaries for civil servants, on the other hand, had increased only about nine times over the pre-war level, only very slightly more than the rise in the cost of living, so that after the war the workers received a greater share of the national income than they had before.

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656 Up to 1942 the wage scale was a question to be settled between the employer and the employed, but that year a government order was passed by which the government undertook to regulate

465 656 wages. After the war, together with the rise in living expenses, repeated demands for higher wages, accompanied by work stoppages, were made by the trade unions. In 1945 the government issued a decree according to which wages were to be raised commensurate with the cost of living, and this started a competition between prices and wages which has greatly promoted the general inflation and has now become one of the major financial problems in modern Finland.

465 Together with this trend for higher wages, there has been a demand for reduction of the margin between the wages paid to skilled and to seasonal workers. The combined influences of labor and the post-war scarcity of food and other essentials caused wages to rise beyond the level

511 465 established by Wage Regulation orders. If the cost of living index is supposed to have been

511 100 in 1939, in 1950 it was 911, and the general 465 trend for higher prices and higher wages still prevails.

The following table shows the wage norms and average hourly earnings (in marks) in certain industries in 1939-1948 as compared with the cost of living index:

	1939	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948
Cost of living index	100	201	282	450	681	804
New cost of living index					100	112
Wage norms						
Agricultural work	—	8:40	15:50	22:-	43:25	48:-
Forestry	4:63	12:21	26:-	34:38	52:50	58:28
General labor (State)	4:60	9:14	20:-	26:50	41:25	45:75
Men's average hourly earnings						
Pottery trade	11:25	28:39	40:44	57:-	99:70	111:42
Machine shops	9:44	22:02	37:20	52:73	80:94	102:99

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EOI Finland EOI

Sulphite pulp mills	7:71	17:54	31:66	45:13	81:50	96:94
Sawmills	8:09	17:66	30:30	43:15	73:85	90:84
Sugar factories	8:48	15:80	26:53	35:74	68:70	80:57
Cotton mills	7:32	16:39	26:78	38:86	49:91	72:31

Women's average hourly earnings

Pottery trade	6:49	17:20	29:18	41:88	68:72	79:93
Machine shops	5:66	12:78	26:16	34:88	57:52	71:02
Sulphite pulp mills	4:28	10:22	22:15	31:70	61:87	71:74
Sawmills	4:06	9:99	20:44	29:28	51:78	62:19
Sugar factories	5:17	9:61	19:63	27:86	51:70	61:42
Cotton mills	4:51	10:33	19:38	29:41	37:88	55:51

000 Cotton mills 4:51 10:33 19:38 29:41 37:88 55:51

562 465 Among civil servants and State officials the principle of equal pay for equal work is recognized, but in other occupations the salaries of women are lower than the men's. By the end of 1949 the wage index had risen in different groups as follows: (from an assumed 100 in 1939):

	Men	Women	Both
Agricultural workers	1303	1686	-
Higher State officials			543
Lower State officials			782
Industrial workers	1190	1400	–

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EOl Finland EOl

000 Industrial workers	1190	1400	-

465 Many agricultural workers receive their pay partly in kind, but this is a matter of agreement between the employer and employee, and no uniform system exists. Another group of workers, who receive part of their salaries in kind, are domestic servants. An Act of the year 1949 regulates their working hours and established norms for their salaries, according to the cost of living in different localities, but since domestic help is difficult to get, the workers often enjoy salaries far above the prescribed norms.

657 466 Family allowances are paid by the State, not by the employer, but allowances for children ($62 per annum for each child under 16, regardless

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EO1 Finland EO1

657 466 of the family's economical status) are partly collected from the employer, while the rest comes from public funds. Family allowances are paid to needy families, mostly in kind, an average of $13-$17 annually for each child.

466 745 Compensation has been paid for workers injured in accidents since 1895. The newest system, dating from 1948, provides free medical care for persons injured in labor accidents or suffering from occupational diseases, and free artificial limbs for those who need them. Daily allowances are equal to 50-75 per cent of the regular wages, and if a permanent disability ensues, annuities up to 80 per cent are paid. Relief pensions, also up to 80 per cent, are paid to the widow and other dependents of a worker killed in an accident.

466 Working conditions. Especially in the newer industries, working conditions are good, and in the older ones many improvements have been made. According to the Labor Protection Act, 10 cubic meters per worker of air space in a workroom are required, as well as sufficient floor space. The room must be fitted with windows and adequately lighted, and order and cleanliness, ventilation and the most favorable temperature and degree of humidity permitted by the work done must be maintained. In addition, special eating, washing and dressing quarters must be provided. There are detailed stipulations in connection with safety appliances for power machines, tools and power transmission, and first aid equipment must be kept on hand. Special factory inspectors, appointed under the auspices of the Ministry for Social

466 Affairs, supervise the various industries to make sure these provisions are observed.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1n,

Sociological Background

466

FORCED LABOR

There exists no slave labor in Finland.

Annex "A," Subparagraph lo,

Sociological Background

LABOR RELATIONS AND ORGANIZATION

466 675 The relations between employer and employees developed in Finland towards the end of the nineteenth century on a voluntary basis with labor contracts. In Finnish law a labor contract is an agreement under the terms of which one party, the worker, undertakes to work for a second party, the employer, in return for remuneration and under the direction and super-

467 vision of the latter. The first labor organizations were born around the same time, and in 1907 a central body, the Organization of Finnish Trade Unions, was established. During the Russian revolution however, it became Communist controlled, and inner friction resulted. In 1930 the whole organization was abolished by the

467 government, and a new one, the Central League of Finnish Trade Unions (Suomen Ammattiyhdistysten Keskusliitto, abbreviated to SAK), theoretically independent of all political parties, was established.

441 Simultaneously with the workers, the employers began to organize, and in 1917 individual branches were gathered under the Central Federation of Finnish Employers (Suomen Työnantajain Keskusliitto, STK). Its most recent membership was 2, 374, as compared to a total of 227, 762 workers.

468 Employers, however, were reluctant to enter into collective agreements, for they considered the trade unions to be too much under political influence. But since the war years a noteworthy change has occurred, and in 1944 the Central Federation of Finnish Employers and the Central

468 League of Finnish Trade Unions concluded a general agreement concerning the handling of labor questions. Since then, collective agreements have become common, especially in industry, but also in agriculture and forestry. They are drawn by several employers or a registered association of employers and, on the other side, by one or more registered workers' associations.

Disputes and strikes did not start in Finland until the turn of the century. Generally, work stoppages have been frequent in good times and rare in bad times, when little is to be gained by a strike. Since World War II stoppages have been common because of political and economic unrest, and many trade unions, driven by Communist agitation, have gone on strike without the permission of the Central League. The

468 following table shows the number of stoppages in recent years:

	Number of stoppages	Number of workers affected	Number of work days lost
1931-35	15 (average)	1,885 (average)	32,206 (average)
1936-40	26 (average)	3,836 (average)	118,248 (average)
1941-45	23 (average)	7,582 (average)	76,948 (average)
1946	42	18,913	115,984
1947	228	114,739	479,496
1948	84	16,157	232,824

The government takes an active interest in labor disputes, especially since stoppages in work in the post-war years were fatal for the scheduled

468 delivery of war reparations to the Soviet Union.

698 [468] From 1946 on, a special Labor Court has been in operation which deals with disputes concerning the validity, application and content of collective agreements. The members of the Court consist of a president and 8 members, appointed by the President of the Republic, the president and two of the members directly, the other on the recommendation of the employers' and employees' organizations. The findings of the Labor Court are final. In 1948, during its first year of operation, the Labor Court dealt with 13 cases, 9 of which were submitted by employers' federations, 3 by workers' associations, and 1 by the public authorities.

468 466 The Factory Committees, prescribed by law, act as mediators in the settlement of disputes between employers, workers and staff personnel,

468 466 as mentioned in Subparagraph lm.[1] In addition, there are government-appointed mediators, whose duties are outlined in a law of 1946. These mediators hold office only three years at a time, and each has a specific territory in which he is expected to follow the development of labor relations. A strike is forbidden unless the party concerned has submitted to the proper mediator and, to the opposing party, duly witnessed warning of the strike threat at least two weeks prior to the proposed date. The mediator must immediately inform the Ministry of Social Affairs, and must call a mediation conference, which the employer and the trade union involved are obligated to attend. If no agreement is achieved, the mediator again has to inform the Ministry without delay.

000 The League of the Trade Unions is a powerful

[1] [See pp. 249, cat. 116 -- Analyst.]

467 The League of the Trade Unions is a powerful factor in the economic and political life of the [665] country. Officially non-political, it is under the influence of the Social Democratic Party and the Communists are striving to gain control of the central body as well as of the individual unions. Virtually all industrial workers belong to a trade union. In 1950 the trade unions under the Central League and the number of their members were as follows:

Union of Automobile Workers	5,232
Union of Workers in the Foodstuff Industry	8,051
Union of Hotel and Restaurant Personnel	3,149
Union of Goldsmiths and Jewellers	1,101
Union of Male Folk School Teachers	215
Union of Workers in Real Estate	1,722
Union of Workers in the Book Industry	8,143
Union of Communal Workers	18,767

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Union of Workers in the Textile Industry	12,325
Union of Workers in the Glass and China Industries	3,250
Union of Workers in Commerce	11,634
Union of Pilots and Lighthouse Workers	517
Union of Officials in Rural Communes	754
Union of Agricultural and Seasonal Workers	12,674
Union of Mechanics	341
Union of Seamen	6,320
Union of Metal Workers	41,660
Union of Nurses in Mental Hospitals	1,551
Union of Bricklayers	3,830
Union of Musicians	1,371
Union of Workers in Leather, Footwear and Rubber Industries	6,045
Union of Secondary School Teachers	107
Union of Workers in the Paper Industry	15,498

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Union of Policemen	3,900
Union of Postmen	2,977
Union of Workers in the Wood Industry	19,320
Union of Construction Workers	22,145
Union of Railroad Workers	15,511
Union of Socail Democratic Journalists	109
Union of Divers	269
Union of Customs Workers	615
Union of Workers	8,562
Union of Workers in the Clothing Industry	4,101
Union of State Officials	745
Union of Prison Officials	1,241
Union of Engine Drivers	4,190
Union of Journalists	87
Union of Work Supervisors	354
Aggregate membership	248,383

The aims of the Central League of Trade

467 Unions are stated as follows: 1) to help the workers the organize themselves; 2) to supervise the activities of local unions; 3) to help in the establishment of local and national trade unions and to promote their co-operation; 4) to support the democratic judicial system; 5) to strive for developing social legislation in a direction favorable for the workers; 6) to work for economic democracy in production; 7) to promote the general knowledge of the workers on questions pertaining to national and international movement of trade unions and to the development of better economic, social and technical conditions; 8) to act as a representative organ for the workers in trade unions; 9) to propagandize on behalf of the trade union movement, both orally and in books and leaflets; 10) to help the trade unions both materially and morally in their strivings to

promote the status of the workers; 11) to collect statistical data on the status of the workers in Finland; and 12) to co-operate with other associations at home and abroad which hold similar aims and principles.

In practice the Central League has a definite left-wing political coloring, and it can be expected to support the undertakings of the government as long as the left-wing parties are represented in it. During the last war its attitude towards national defense was definitely positive, but lately the Communists have tried to gain control over the unions. Traditionally, labor has been well stabilized, but under actual and possible Communist influence there is likely to be unrest and political insecurity in the country.

The white collar workers, who generally do not hold left-wing political views, are only very

467 superficially represented in the Central League. They have their own association, the Central Federation of Intellectual Workers whose aims are: 1) to secure the essential working conditions for intellectual workers; 3) to promote the feeling of solidarity between intellectual workers; and 4) to promote the professional skills and the good citizenship of intellectual workers.

In the beginning of the year 1950 the societies belonging to the Central Federation of Intellectual Workers and their memberships were as follows:

	Membership
Society of Teachers in Business Schools	92
Society of Communal Officials	6,100
Society of Teachers in Handicrafts	348
Society of Forestry Technicians	2,000

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Association of Bank Officials	1,506
Association of Officials in the Woodwork Industry	38
Association of Foremen in the Book Industry	468
Association of Pharmaceutists	2,003
Association of Primary School Teachers	10,880
Association of Chemists	157
Association of Jurists	1,124
Association of Kindergarten Teachers	560
Association of Airline Officials	79
Association of Business Executives	5,358
Association of Gymnastic Therapeutists	99
Association of Foresters	1,089
Association of Music Teachers	390
Association of Art Teachers	205
Association of Woodworkers	450
Association of Journalists	684

Association of Industrial Officials	2, 276
Association of Insurance Officials	1, 149
Office of Composers' Copyright Association	61
Association of Officials in State Institutions	1, 393
Association of State Officials	20, 092
Association of Swedish Bank Officials	550
Association of Swedish Primary School Teachers	1, 282
Association of Swedish Foresters	236
Association of Swedish Officials in Industry and Commerce	2, 105
Association of Swedish Insurance Officials	300
Aggregate membership	63, 074

The Federation of Intellectual Workers has not had any influence worth mentioning on national politics, nor does it exercise any pressure in acquiring new members, as do the trade unions.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1p,

Sociological Background

HEALTH AND SANITATION

262 The diet of the Finns is based on milk and butter, cereals, meat and potatoes. The consumption of vegetables is still quite low, and fruits, except for fruit preserves, are accessible to everyone only during summer and early autumn. Fish in general is important in the coastal areas, and salted Baltic herrings are common all over the country. 261 146 Next to the Irish, the Finns are the heaviest eaters in the world. The average consumption of calories per day per person is 3330 (in Ireland 3480), while in Sweden it is 3090 and in the United States 3160. All the same, hard work and a harsh climate seem to counteract the effect of the excessive calories; the Finns do not show any more tendency to obesity than their neighbors.

000 tendency to obesity than their neighbors.

262 In 1950 the monthly consumption of food in an average family (4-5 members) was estimated as follows:

Butter and margarine	7. 2 kg.
Cheese	0. 5 kg.
Eggs	62
Meat	8. 6 kg.
Fish	9. 0 kg.
Rye bread	5. 3 kg.
Whole wheat or barley bread	5. 3 kg.
Wheat	12. 5 kg.
Potatoes	40. 8 kg.
Milk	82 litres
Fruit	2. 7 kg.
Sugar	7. 7 kg.
Coffee	1. 0 kg.
Fruit preserves	1. 6 kg.

262 Sausages and cold cuts	3.2 kg.
Beer	8.6 litres

At the time of this estimate,[1] sugar and coffee [272] were still rationed. With a free market, the coffee consumption has probably increased in most families.

After the recent war the general tendency has been to substitute wheat bread for the traditional dark rye bread, a development which both physicians and dentists are warning against. At meals 262 252 rye bread is still the favorite. It is always sour, baked in water or buttermilk, and seasoned for variety with caraway seeds, malt or syrup. In western Finland the bread is traditionally baked in round, flat loaves with a hole in the middle. After baking, the loaves are all threaded on a round stick, which is raised high up next to the ceiling between the beams. The bread

[1] [1950--Analyst]

262 becomes hard and crisp, and a month's supply
252 can be baked at one time. In eastern Finland the farmers prefer their bread soft, and the hard loaves are nowadays too tough to consume. Instead, the so-called hardtack, commercially prepared, is very popular all over the country. Wheat is used for coffee bread, cakes and cookies, which the Finns consume in great quantities in the true Scandinavian manner. Different kinds of cereals, cooked in milk or water, either as a thick porridge or thin gruel, are basic in the Finnish menu.

262 The consumption of meat is still fairly low, although it has been steadily increasing. A few decades ago the farmers did all their slaughtering in the fall and lived the whole winter on smoked or salted meat; lately, the establishment of co-operative slaughter houses has enabled

262 the rural families to enjoy fresh meat throughout the year. The consumption of milk and butter, on the other hand, rates among the highest in Europe, and the same is true of potatoes. Conversely, sugar consumption in Finland is among the lowest in Western Europe.

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146 In spite of its monotony, the Finnish diet is estimated to be quite adequate because of the high consumption of milk and whole cereals. It contains about 112 grams of protein and 84 grams of fat per day per person, and sufficient amount of vitamins A, B and C. Dietary deficiency diseases are unknown in Finland, except for rickets in small children, and lately even this has virtually disappeared in most districts.

264 In the farmhouses three meals are eaten per day, at 7:00 A. M., at noon, and at 6:00 P. M. In addition, there are intervals of coffee

264 drinking at 10:00 A. M. and 3:00 P. M., and the coffee pot is kept warm on the hearth all day long. Among city people these times differ slightly. The first meal of the day, at 7:00 or 8:00, is very light, and breakfast--or lunch--is eaten at 11:00 o'clock, while dinner, the principle meal of the day, follows at 4:00 or 5:00 P. M. The high point of the day is the afternoon coffee, around 1:00 or 2:00 P. M. Coffee parties are frequent, and the hostess prides herself on the multitude of cakes, cookies and tarts she has baked, especially on a "name day" celebra-
527 tion. (Finland and Sweden have a calendar in which each day is dedicated to a different personal name, and these occasions are observed much more carefully than birthdays.)

262 In the country important occasions, such as
527 weddings, anniversaries and even funerals, are

262 527 followed by a big dinner which begins with the smörgasbord, with its multitude of smoked and jellied fish, cold cuts and casseroles--actually a meal in itself. The other courses consist of beef bouillon with small meat pies, cooked or fried fish, pot roast and a dessert, nowadays usually ice cream instead of the traditional rice pudding with fruit sauce. The holiday dishes are partly the same as in Sweden: at Christmas, lye-fish (lutfisk in Swedish), roast ham, rice pudding and tarts filled with stewed prunes; on Shrove Tuesday pea soup, pigs' feet and buns filled with marzipan. There is a very special Finnish Easter dish, a kind of baked pudding made of rye flour, malts and seasoning, and eaten with cream and sugar. The first of May calls for the traditional drink of mead, and Midsummer is the day for frying the crisp, paper-thin pancakes,

262 527 which are the favorite dessert all over Scandinavia.

439 262 241 As indicated in Subparagraph 1m, Finland is partly dependent on her imports for meeting the demand for cereals. In dairy products she is self-sufficient (before World War II she was even an exporter of these products), but, without fodder from abroad, the productivity of the dairy industry is bound to decline sharply. The cultivation of the sugar beet has greatly increased, but is still unable to meet native consumption. Other articles that must be imported are fruits, coffee and tobacco. 262 245 The forests of Finland abound in wild berries, which bring a welcome variety to the diet, and currants, strawberries and raspberries are common in most gardens. But the only fruit tree that, at least occasionally, gives good crops in southern

262 245 and central Finland, is the apple tree. Cultivation of pear, plum and cherry trees is limited to the southeastern corner of the country, and even at best it is not very profitable.

[515] 164 Basically the Finns are a physically strong race, and cleanliness is traditional. But the harsh climate, especially the absence of the sun during the long winter, has contributed to the prevalence of some diseases, especially tuberculosis. Epidemic diseases are not common. There has not been a single case of smallpox for two decades, typhus epidemics are rare, and since vaccination became available, diphtheria has greatly decreased. Polio, on the other hand, has been increasing. Leprosy has completely dissappeared, so that the hospital for that disease has been closed. During the time of Finland's independence much progress

164 has been made in the fight against tuberculosis, but the war period caused the mortality rate for this disease again to go up. In 1900 the death rate for tuberculosis was 23 per 10,000 each [744] year; in 1936 it had decreased to 16. After the war the country was divided into 25 TB districts, each headed by a tuberculosis specialist whose sole duty is to fight this disease with the best [745] methods available. The total number of beds in the large, modern TB hospitals is at present 5,700.

165 The following table shows the annual causes of mortality in the period 1941-45:

I. Infant diseases	2,000
II. Diseases of old age	5,736
III. Infectious diseases	11,501
1. Typhoid	117
2. Paratyphoid	100

3. Smallpox	--
4. Measles	39
5. Scarlet fever	81
6. Whooping cough	282
7. Diptheria	699
8. Influenza	281
9. Castroenteritis	1,021
10. Erysipelas	142
11. Angina septica	589
12. Infantile paralysis	63
13. Sleeping sickness	42
14. Lung tuberculosis	6,318
15. Other forms of tuberculosis	1,070
IV. Diseases in the blood-forming organs	313
V. Dieases of metabolism	397
Diabetes	
VI. Diseases of the nervous system	4,159
Cerebral hemorrhage	3,200

VII.	Diseases of the circulatory system	9,880
VIII.	Diseases of the respiratory system	3,277
IX.	Diseases of the digestive system	1,497
X.	Diseases of the urinary system	736
XI.	Diseases of the sexual organs	183
XII.	Diseases of pregnancy and childbirth	324
XIII.	Diseases of bones and joints	175
XIV.	Skin diseases	24
XV.	Tumors	4,439
	Cancer	4,012
XVI.	Chronic poisonings	21
XVII.	A.) Accidents	2,210
	B.) Suicide	622
	C.) Murder	192
XVIII.	Cause unknown	647

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759 The highest medical supervision is entrusted to the Board of Public Health, operating under the ministry for the Interior, which also arranges for the education of nurses, while the universities provide education for physicians, dentists and pharmaceutists. Each administrative district has a district doctor who is responsible for medical care in the communes. Each commune has a Health Board which is in charge of public health in the smallest administrative units. The Health Board is by law obliged to engage a communal physician, a health nurse for each 4000 inhabitants, and a midwife for each 5000 inhabitants. Most communes have built special health centers with advisory stations for expectant mothers and infant care, and apartments for the health personnel.

000 In addition, many organizations perform

743 In addition, many organizations perform
758 voluntary work in the field of public health. The most important of these is General Mannerheim's Child Welfare League, which maintains clinics all over the country and formerly even took care of the training of the health nurses. It also maintains a special children's center, the Children's Castle, in Helsinki, for the training of nurses. In 1947 there were 1250 stations, communal and private, for maternity and nursing advice in the country.

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759
758 The following table shows the general progress in medical care during the time of Finland's independence:

	1917	1947
Hospitals	303	550
Beds in hospitals and lunatic asylums	10758	29150

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Number of physicians employed by the State and the communes	450	966
Doctors in private practice	195	580
Dentists	209	1075
Pharmacists	327	427
Midwives	799	1171
Practicing nurses	1000	5000
Public health nurses	-	855
Mental hospital nurses	-	275

Hospital beds (December 31, 1949):

Type of hospital	State	Communal groups	Cities	Rural communes	Private	Altogether	Per 1000 persons
General	4295	--	1925	1999	1752	9971	2.53
Mental	1470	5289	1915	60	63	8797	2.24
Tuberculosis	210	4249	886	86	710	6141	1.56
Maternity	434	--	424	349	298	1505	0.38
Venereal diseases	370	--	--	--	--	370	0.09
Epidemic diseases	--	--	1083	1750	--	2833	0.72
Epilepsy	--	--	--	--	161	161	0.04

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EOl Finland EOl

759 Although the medical personnel is well-trained and reliable, it is still too small in number. Proportionally there are fewer physicians in Finland than in any other West European country, one for every 1900 people (e.g. in Sweden one for every 1400). In spite of the economic opportunities for doctors in the faraway regions of Finland, young doctors have tended to concentrate in Helsinki. However, all over the country there is now a building program for modern, well-equipped central hospitals which should attract competent doctors in their employ.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1q,

Sociological Background

PUBLIC WELFARE

511 The recent war and the years immediately following created in Finland an acute shortage of food and clothing which especially affected the city dwellers, regardless of their social positions. It was practically impossible to get along without the help of the black market, which of course, placed the wealthier in a more favorable position. In 1948, however, a sharp turn to the better took place, consumer goods began to be available to everyone, the black market lost its significance, and today the diet and the clothing of the Finns are wholly adequate, even taking into consideration the harsh climatic conditions of the country.

000 Another problem created by the war was the

1:Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 E01 Finland E01

362 Another problem created by the war was the shortage of housing. This difficulty still remains unsettled, especially in the major cities where the population has sharply increased. People moving in from the country have been forced to live in air raid shelters and other temporary lodgings, and many young couples have had to delay their marriage because of their inability to find a place to live.

Recently the situation has improved as new houses have been built with the help of government loans, but it has not yet reached the pre-war standards. In 1950 the housing situation in Finland in terms of the percentage of the population living in extremely crowded conditions was estimated as follows:

	Cities	Rural areas
1-2 persons per room	77.3 per cent	74.3 per cent

362 More than 2 persons per room	22.7 per cent	25.7 per cent

The percentage of 1-2 persons per room was lower than in any other West European country, but higher than in eastern or southern Europe.

In rural areas the housing situation improved much during the time of Finland's independence. When in 1901 the ratio of freehold dwellings was 45 per cent, by 1937 it had risen to 88 per cent. About 20 per cent of these dwellings had only one room, 35 per cent 2 rooms, 18 per cent 3 rooms, 20 per cent 4-5 rooms, and 7 per cent 6 rooms or more. The houses, as a rule, are
372 very well built and heated. The consumption of firewood in Finland is relatively greater than in any other country in the world. In view of the fact that no other fuel is available--except for peat, which is not used at all for heating--and

372 that the farmers have adequate firewood in their own forests at their disposal, it is no wonder that this is the type of fuel used exclusively in the rural areas in Finland.

365 The electrification of rural areas was well under way before the war and has progressed ever since with the establishment of new power stations, especially in northern Finland. In 1937 nearly half of the cultivated area in Finland was electrified. In the district of Uusimaa 52.5 per cent of the rural houses had electricity, in the former district of Vii[uri 47.1 per cent, in the district of Häme 37.4 per cent, in the district of Vaasa 32.2 per cent, and in the district of Turku and Pori 41.4 per cent. The worst off were parts of eastern and north-eastern Finland, the district Mikkeli having only 7.4 per cent electrified rural area, and the district of

365 Kuopio 7:6 per cent. The cities, of course, have long been completely electrified.

Recently, more and more farmhouses have installed running water, but, characteristically, only after their barns and stall had been taken care of.

511 Various women's associations have made great efforts to improve the general living standards in the country. Mostly, the inadequate conditions have been caused by general disinterest rather than by actual lack of means.

515 Visitors have long commented on the cleanliness of the Finns, as shown in their dwellings, even the very modest ones, and in their personal hygiene. Of course there is still room for improvement, but it can at least be said that it is safe to eat and to drink anything anywhere in Finland, as far as cleanliness of the food is concerned.

352 The big living rooms and kitchens in the country homes are often pleasant looking and cozy with their handcarved heirloom furniture, woven rugs and tapestries. Rocking chairs are inevitable in the country homes as well as in the more crowded establishments in cities, and it is practically impossible to come across a Finnish home, no matter how modest, which does not have its window sills filled with flowering plants. The Finns are extremely fond of flowers, no doubt because of their long and dreary winters.

511 There do not exist any marked deviances in living standards in the different parts of the country. The poorest regions are those in the northeast, next to the Russian border, where the soil is barren and the families often too large for the parents to care for properly.

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511 Much public and voluntary work is being done to improve the conditions in those areas. Even in the south, in the outer islands of the archipelago, the fishermen often have to get along without the necessities of life, as the soil is too rocky to feed a cow or to grow potatoes, and communication with the mainland is often hampered by storms and ice.

361 There are no slum areas in the cities; the daily sweeping of streets and cleaning of the market places keep the cities very clean. Since industry uses water power instead of coal, even cities like Tampere, an industrial center crowded with large factories, can offer a spectacle of white buildings and verdant parks.

735 Beggary is non-existent, and the class of vagabonds is mainly represented by gypsies, who are more numerous in Finland than in any other Northern country.

000 Northern country.

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548 The difficult housing conditions no doubt have had a share in the general loosening of morals following the war years, but there has been no special increase in juvenile delinquency, except for the young girls who drifted to Helsinki and the bigger cities to find adventure, started out doing domestic work, and sometimes ended up as prostitutes. Public officials, the Church and several organizations do much work among these "people of the streets."

733 The greatest social problem in Finland before and after the war has been alcoholism. The annual consumption of alcohol in Finland is among the smallest in the world, but this figure is misleading, since much consumption is in the form of hard liquors. Moreover, the percentages for both those totally abstaining and those

733 indulging in excessive drinking are high in Finland. The war caused an increase in the consumption of alcohol, as shown in the table below:

Consumption per head of 100 per cent alcohol:

1938	1.43 litres
1943	1.28 litres
1946	1.90 litres
1948	1.76 litres

647 As everywhere in the Northern countries, much public and voluntary work is done to improve social conditions. The central office for social administration is the Ministry for Social Affairs, which is divided into five departments: general, labor, insurance, welfare, and temperance and liquor trade. The general department contains, e.g., a Social Research Office, a Housing Office, an Office for Family Allowances and Marriage Loans, and a Population Office.

1: Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EO1 Finland EO1

647 The Social Welfare department is divided into a Poor Aid Office, a Child Welfare Office and a Rehabilitation Office. Subordinate to the Ministry are the Insurance Court, the Government Accident Office, the labor protection and welfare exhibition, the Government Labor dispute arbitrators, factory inspectors, Government reformatory schools and refugee homes, social welfare district inspectors and liquor trade inspectors. Each commune has a Public Welfare Board which supervises the carrying out of social legislation in its particular area.

745 Old age and disability insurance became compulsory in Finland by the People's Pension Act, passed in 1939. Each citizen is now insured from the beginning of the calendar year when he attains the age of 18, irrespective of whether he is gainfully employed or not. Thus, the scope

745 of this insurance is wider than in most other countries. The costs are met by the insured themselves, by the employers, the communes and the State. Premiums continue until the sixty-fifth year. Disability pensions are granted to persons found to be permanently incapable of work, old age pensions to people over 65. These pensions are much too low to meet ordinary living expenses, but they are a welcome addition to the pension a person usually has from his former employer after retirement. While still at work, the employees are protected by different kinds of insurance, as indicated in Subparagraph 1m.

746 Needy groups in the society are well protected. The welfare boards in the communes are obliged to take care of the destitute, minors lacking legal providers, and all other persons unable

746 for some reason to provide for themselves. Some are assisted in their homes, and some are placed in communal homes and workhouses. In 1947 the number of people receiving poor aid was distributed as follows:

Men	31,141
Women	53,607
Children	21,354
Total	106,102

Special attention is paid to the care of children. There are child welfare boards in every locality whose duty it is to organize the advisory services necessary for the welfare and training of children and to assist private institutions within the communal area. They also are responsible for maintaining health nurses and maternity and child welfare stations.

000 Maternity aid, usually in kind, is paid to each

745 Maternity aid, usually in kind, is paid to each expectant mother, and she is also entitled to free medical care in the maternity stations. A 12-weeks' paid vacation preceding and following the delivery is prescribed by law for a pregnant woman employed in public or private work, and the child welfare stations give free advice on
855 the care of the child. For older children there are child welfare institutions intended to supplement home efforts. A working mother can leave her children at a créche or kindergarten during her working hours. For the school children there are summer colonies and day homes, playground and game services, and an arrangement for sending children to private homes in the country.

736 The child welfare authorities must provide proper training for any child whose parents are dead or handicapped by physical or mental ill

736 health. Such a child is placed in an approved private home or a children's home and handicapped children are sent to the proper institutions. For the care of mentally deficient children there are two institutes maintained by the Government, one municipal (city or Helsinki), one owned by a coalition of communes, and 3 maintained by private societies. In 1948 there
738 were 791 children in these institutions. For difficult and delinquent children there are reformatories, including homes and schools--a total of 23 altogether. In 1948 the number of inmates was 1666.

733 Asocial members of the community are treated in both public and private institutions. Vagabonds who are considered to be dangerous to themselves or others are put into workhouses and chronic drunkards, who refuse voluntary

753 treatments, are after repeated warnings and investigation placed in the proper institutions. In 1947 welfare measure were taken in regard to 5921 chronic drunkards, 5330 of whom were men and 591 women. Altogether 816 received treatment in institutions.

747 794 Voluntary relief work is very important. The Church is represented in different fields of social welfare through various organizations. Its central organ is the Home Mission Society of the Finnish Church, which maintains, among others, training institutes for deaconesses; a training college for matrons of children's homes, a home for epileptics and a home for imbecilic children. Another welfare organization in the Church is the Finnish Seamen's Mission, which does relief work on a large scale among Finnish sailors and emigrants in foreign countries. In

747 [794] addition, the Church maintains City Mission Societies in large towns, and Christian Social Work Centers among the workers, e. g. in lumber camps in the North.

The Finnish Red Cross does especially valuable work for the benefit of the war invalids and their families, and pioneer work for child welfare has been carried on by General Mannerheim's Child Welfare League. The League of Social Democratic Women Workers maintains maternity homes for unwed mothers and holiday hostels for mothers and children. In addition, there are several societies founded for the care of disabled persons, such as the Friends of the Blind, the Society for Aid of Deaf Mutes, and the Foundation for Schools for Cripples, which maintains schools and homes and organizes employment for the disabled.

747 The various branches of voluntary relief work were in 1941 concentrated under one central organ called Finland Aid. Until 1948 it had collected in Finland 900 million Finnish marks for relief purposes of a voluntary character, and an additional 13 million marks were received as aid from abroad.

000 Social welfare work in Finland is progressive and well organized, and the public conscience is aware of the necessity of help for the needy, although the sums annually spent for these purposes lie heavily on the budget of the State and, in the form of taxes, on the purse of the individual citizens.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 1r,

Sociological Background

ATTITUDES AND REACTIONS OF THE PEOPLE

186 As a whole the Finns are an extremely patriotic nation, deeply attached to their country and to their homes. The rise of Finland as an independent power is based on the nationalistic movements of the previous century, and a strong idealism used to be apparent in public life: "everything for the country, everything for the people." These were by no means empty words; being realists, the Finns were well aware that their nation could exist only by wholehearted effort on the part of its people, but they had faith that even a small nation could survive if it relied on its own resources and "remained faithful to itself." The spirit of confidence and

186 of sacrifice was at its height during the Finnish-Russian Winter War, when the entire outside world was expecting Finland to succumb at any moment.

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Since the last war there has been a change in the general attitude. The first post-war years were gloomy and full of apprehension approaching disaster, in view of what was happening to the other small nations in Europe who appeared to be mere pawns in the hands of more powerful nations. In the foreign presses the Finns were alternately praised and ridiculed. In all layers of Finnish society this unhappy period led to a materialistic viewpoint and a turning away from patriotic and nationalistic sympathies. This spiritual emptiness was especially prevalent among the university students and other young intellectuals who had been strongly

186 [727] influenced by the former nationalistic enthusiasm and had suffered relatively greater losses during the war than any other group of Finns.

But in spite of this post-war pessimism they set to work energetically to pay their war indemnity to Russia, to settle their refugees and to heal their other war wounds. Today there are hardly any visible signs of the war, not even in Lappland which was completely devastated by the retreating German troops. The post-war achievements of the Finns are the more noticeable as they have been attained without any Marshall Plan Aid--although foreign loans have been available--and in the midst of inner friction and economic difficulties. The prevailing desire of the Finns is to retain their complete independence, and most Finns believe that their resolution to fight rather than to yield anything

186 voluntarily was a wise one, in spite of all their bitter losses and sacrifices. But the Finns are fully aware of their precarious situation, living on the edge of a volcano, so to speak, and of their helplessness in case of a fresh disaster.

665 578 All the same, the people seem surprisingly calm and self-possessed; panic and nervousness, they know, will not improve the situation anyway.

The inner frictions in the country, referred to above, have been caused by different groups of people pursuing their own selfish interests. So, the farmers and the workers tend repeatedly to conflict in domestic matters. The agrarians have been the leading party in most of the post-war governments, and they have made themselves unpopular in the eyes of both the intellectuals and the laboring class, who criticize them because of the high taxes and low wages and

665 [578] unwise policies which specifically promote the interests of the farmers. In the realm of foreign politics, however, there are few differences of opinion. 641 Most of the Finns feel that the decisions made by the government at various times have been the only possible decisions. Lately there has been some indication of a rising opposition to the narrow and selfish programs of the political parties and an emphasis on the importance of a more idealistic attitude for the future of the whole country. There is no doubt that patriotic feelings are still strong among the Finnish people.

186 533 The national movement in the nineteenth century gave rise to fine patriotic poetry and music. The national anthem of Finland, Maamme 'Our Land,' first sung in the students' May festival in 1848, appeared as the opening

186 583 poem in Runeberg's collection, The Tales of the Ensign Stål. For a national anthem it is a very modest one, although full of praise of the beauty of the Finnish landscape and hopes of a brighter future for the country and its people. Another inspiring song from the same collection is Porilaisten marssi 'The March of the Pori Regiment,' set to the music of a fine military march born at the time of the Finnish-Russian war of 1808-09, and at present the march of honor for the whole Finnish Army. These songs were forbidden during the Russian oppression at the beginning of this century, and the same fate befell Sibelius' tone poem, spontaneously named Finlandia by the people, who immediately understood its message and its potential influence. There exists a multitude of popular patriotic songs and marches, some of them originating

186 as long ago as the Thirty Years' War period.
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Patriotic festivals and military parades are very serious occasions for the Finns, and the whole audience often spontaneously joins in the national anthem; however, at moments of special danger or severity, such as the time of the outbreak of the Winter War and the negotiations preceding it, Our Land was, by silent agreement, substituted by Luther's battle hymn A Mighty Fortress is Our God, which has special significance for the Finns.

186 The Finnish colors, blue and white, originated as the emblem of the national Finnish party during the last century, and after Finland became independent they were established as the colors of the Finnish flag: a blue cross on a white field (all the Northern countries have cross flags). The Army and the State banner, in addition,

contain the ancient coat-of-arms of Finland. This emblem was given to Finland by a Swedish king at the end of the sixteenth century in acknowledgement of a successful war against Russia. It consists of an upright, crowned golden lion standing on a red field, treading with its hind legs an Eastern crooked sabre and holding a straight Western sword in its harnessed right hand. The field of the coat-of-arms is scattered with nine silver roses, symbolizing the nine historical provinces of Finland. The coat-of-arms was formerly topped with a Grand Ducal crown, but after Finland became an independent republic, this feature was removed. The nine historical provinces have their own coats-of-arms, most of them originating during the Middle Ages and revealing interesting symbolic features. The motive of the two swords

186 occurs also in the coat-of-arms of Karelia, symbolizing the never-ending battle of East and West over this area.

563 The Swedish-speaking minority--which, it is to be remembered, is not a minority in the legal or constitutional meaning of the word--has shown a patriotism and loyalty no less strong than that of the Finnish-speaking part of the population. Of course, they are always jealously guarding themselves against Finnish influence, and, for example, have seen to it that no Karelian refugees have settled in those communes which are predominantly Swedish-speaking. The Government usually is quite considerate of the interests of the Swedish-speaking group, and this part of the population still has an influence much more important than would be concluded from its small number.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 2a,

Political Background

THE CONSTITUTIONAL SYSTEM

642 The present Finnish Constitution, dating from 1919, includes the basic principles of a modern democracy, and no amendments to its essential parts have been proposed since the two recent wars. Finland by its Constitution is a republic, ruled by the people through their representatives in the Diet, and the executive powers are trusted to a President of the Republic and to his ministers responsible to the Diet.

643 The President is chosen for a period of six years by 300 electors appointed by general election. To be elected a candidate must receive more than one-half of the total votes. The powers of the President are greater than in many other republics. For instance, he may summon

643 the Diet or may dissolve it. He may take the initiative in matters of legislation, and he must approve all governmental proposals. He has the right to veto a proposed law, although another Diet may override this veto. The President also appoints the higher officials, including those of the Army and of the Church, and he has the power of amnesty in individual cases. During peace time he is Commander-in-chief of the army, although during wartime he entrusts the duties connected with this position to a general of his choice. Executive power is controlled by the legislative branch of the government, but in foreign affairs the President has considerable freedom of action, especially if he can rely on the support of several ministers.

646 The Diet consists of one chamber and 200 members. Any Finnish citizen has the right to

646 vote and to be elected to the Diet provided he is past 21 and has not lost his citizenship rights because of some criminal action. The prescribed length of the Diet per year is 120 days, but in praxis the session time is always longer. The members elect a Speaker and two Deputy Speakers. The Diet is divided into committees which review and prepare for presentation the proposed laws: the Constitutional Committee, Laws Committee, Foreign Relations Committee, Finance Committee and Bank Committee; others may be appointed as the situation demands.- The so-called Grand Committee, composed of 45 members, acts as a kind of substitute first legislative chamber. The Diet deals with bills which are proposed by the executive branch of the government. Although members of the Diet also have the right to propose bills, and such

646 bills submitted to the Speaker are numerous, nevertheless only a very few of them ever receive the majority of votes required to pass.

645 Finland has a Prime Minister and a number of other ministers, the maximum number fixed by law. Each minister heads a ministry; in 1947 there were 18 of them, including the ministries of Foreign Affairs, Justice, Interior, Finance, Defense, Education, Agriculture, Transport and Public Works, Trade and Industry, Social Affairs, and Supply. In addition, an assistant minister is customarily added to the ministries of Foreign Affairs, Agriculture and Social Affairs. The ministers, who must be Finnish citizens, have as their duty to assist the President in drafting bills, budget estimates, and proposals for Government loans, all to be presented to the Diet for discussion. The ministers

645 have two permanent committees, the Foreign Relations Committee and the Finance Committee. The legality of the devisions made by the legislative branch is supervised by the Chancellor of Justice. The judicial system of Finland is treated in Subparagraph 2d, Public Order and Safety.[1]

The ministries and central government offices of Finland are:

Government Chancellery → Central Statistical Office

Ministry of Foreign Affairs → Legations
Ministry of Foreign Affairs → Consulates

Ministry of Justice → Prison Board and the prison system

Ministry of the Interior → Provincial Administrations
Ministry of the Interior → Police Force, Security Police
Ministry of the Interior → Board of Public Health

[1][see cat. 116, pp. 346-354--Analyst]

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645 Ministry of Defense → System of Defense

Ministry of Finance → Paymaster General's Office
State Auditing Office
Stamp and Excise
Duty Office
Postal Savings Bank
Customs Office
Bank Inspection

Ministry of Education → Board of Education
(Ecclesiastic chapters and Helsinki University, although they enjoy extensive powers of self-government)

Ministry of Agriculture → Board of Agriculture
Board of Forestry
Forest Research Institution
Meteorological Institution
Geodetical Institution
Veterinary Service
Meat Inspectorate

645 Ministry of Transport and Public Works

- Board of Railways
- Postal and Telegraphic Boards
- Economic Council
- Building Board
- Board of Roads and Waterways

Ministry of Trade and Industry

- Board of Navigation
- Hydrographical Institution
- State License Commission
- Geographical Commission
- State Technical Research Institute
- State Purchasing Center
- Electrical Inspection Office

Ministry for Social Affairs

- State Accident Office
- Insurance Court
- Alcohol Monopoly Company
- Factory Inspection
- Welfare Work

The parliamentary system is established in Finland so that members of the executive branch

645 must enjoy the confidence of the Diet. Since political parties are many and no one of them ever has obtained a majority in the Diet, the governments in Finland tend to be rather short-lived.

641 The individual rights of Finnish citizens were for the most part established in the early Middle Ages and were effective throughout the Swedish-Finnish period. Since then, amendments and additions have been added. The basic rights include: equality in the eyes of the law, protection of life and honor, personal liberty, property rights, privacy of home, mails, telegrams and telephones, rights of meeting and association, freedom of speech, freedom of the press (no censorship in normal times), right of private and public worship and general suffrage. In addition, the Swedish-speaking part of the population is

641 specially guarded against undue Finnish influence and interference.

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113 Mitä, missä, milloin. [What, where, when.] Helsinki: Otava, 1951. Pp. 348; illus.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 2c,

Political Background

POLITICAL DYNAMICS

665 The lines between the political parties in Finland are drawn partly according to social, or rather, economic classes, partly according to the Finnish and Swedish language groups, and partly according to differing views concerning the relations between Finland and the Soviet Union. Since World War II six political parties have been represented in the Parliament. These are the rightist National Coalition, which has its supporters among Finnish-speaking intellectuals, farmers and businessmen; the centrist Finnish People's Party of mostly intellectuals and minor officials; the Swedish People's Party of the Swedish-speaking bourgeoisie; the Agrarian Union of the farmers; the leftist Finnish Social

665 Democratic Party of Workers and small-holders; and the Finnish People's Democratic Union of Workers which is communistic. The two last-mentioned hold Marxist views, while the others form the so-called "bourgeois" camp.

In spite of this multiparty system no greater flunctuations have occurred in the relative strength of the parties, except for the elections in 1945 when the Communists, after having been totally absent from political life for fifteen years, again appeared on the stage supported by current happenings in foreign affairs. The combined votes given to the "bourgeois" parties, however, has remained greater than that given to the Marxists. Moreover, after the war the divisions between socialists and bourgeoisie has lost its significance, and the Social Democratic Party has in fact been established as a centrist

665 organization, much less radical than the Labor parties in Scandinavia and Great Britain, for example. The Social Democrats and the Agrarians have always been the strongest parties in the Diet, and the speakers are usually elected among their representatives.

666 The results of the elections in 1954 were as follows:

Party	Number of votes	Number of representatives in the Diet
Social Democrats	527,094	54
Agrarians	483,958	53
People's Democratic Union	433,528	43
National Coalition	257,025	24
Finnish People's Party	158,323	13
Swedish People's Party	140,130	13

666 Others	8,199	--

For general elections the country is divided into sixteen districts. Any Finnish citizen of voting age can be nominated as a candidate for the Diet, provided that no less than fifty voters promise in writing to vote for him in the election. The voting is by secret ballot and based on the principle of proportional representation. The same method is used in the election of presidential electors and in the communal elections. As mentioned in Subparagraph 2a, general suffrage was established in Finland in 1906. The voting age was first set at 24, but after World War II it was lowered to 21, including those who had served in the regular army.

[871] Education in Finland is on a non-political basis, and the children are exposed to almost no political propaganda in their classrooms. This is

666 taken care of, however, by the youth organizations of the various political parties, the leftists being much more active and seemingly much more successful than the "bourgeois" ones. Among the adults, also, political awareness is more keen in the labor classes than in other layers of society. Usually not more than 70 per cent of the population of voting age actually use this privilege and it is generally understood that the majority of members in this so-called "party of sleepers" are to be found among the "bourgeois" population.

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Vols. I and V. Helsinki: Otava, 1951, 1954.
Pp. 348, 380, illus.

1: Indiana U S-4, 5(no date)1955 EO1 Finland EO1

//3 Toivola, Urho, ed. The Finland Year-Book, 1947. Helsinki: Mercator, 1947. Pp. 445; illus.

Annex "A," Subparagraph 2d,

Political Background

PUBLIC ORDER AND SAFETY

625 The police force, including the security police, is subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior. Each administrative district has a police commissioner in every city and a sheriff in each rural commune. At the disposal of each of these officers is the police force itself and, when they are needed, the mobile police. The security police carry out special State police duties. The commissioners and sheriffs are graduates of the Department of Law at Helsinki University, while the ordinary policemen are usually recruited from among the farmers and other rural people. The quality of the police force is high, and, in general, public order and safety are well maintained. No major clashes have

625 occurred between the police and the public, although there have been complaints that the people are generally not too eager to assist the police. This is partly attributed to the fact that during the Russian oppression the police force was a too willing tool in the hands of the foreign power, thus acquiring an unsavory reputation.

Uniformed policemen are a familiar sight in the cities, where they are on duty all day long directing traffic and keeping an eye on drunkards and other persons likely to disturb public order. [363] Parking is no problem in Finland, where there are no more than 13 private cars for each 1000 inhabitants, but reckless driving is rather common, and a traffic light system has been only recently introduced in some of the major cities. As a rule, it is quite safe to walk around alone even after midnight, as the streets are

625 well lighted and policemen regularly patrol the city. Mounted police are used when large crowds are expected in case of a parade or outdoor festival, but disorder during these events is extremely rare. The calm and slow Finns are not at all inclined to rioting or loud demonstrations.

674 Finland shows a higher annual percentage of criminal cases than Sweden, for example, especially as far as murder or manslaughter are concerned. Alcohol is a significant factor in the majority of violent crimes, and it is known that Finns do not take well to liquor. Larceny and fraud are less frequent; the Finns have of old a reputation of being honest and dependable people, but it is difficult to say if this is well

681 deserved. Many people feel that the existing penal code is too lenient and does not present

681 enough of a threat to deter potential criminals from trespassing the law. There is no capital punishment for any kind of crime, and prisoners are treated humanely and generously. A recent Gallup poll among the people indicated that about 68 per cent of the population would be in favor of capital punishment in cases of premeditated murder.

692 The judicial system is inherited from the early Middle Ages and was developed further during the Swedish-Finnish period. Its reliability and impartiality are almost proverbial; no cases of bribery or other illegal action are known to have occurred and it is trusted and esteemed by all the people. The Public Courts of Justice handle both civil and criminal cases. The lowest courts are the Circuit Courts in the rural areas and Municipal Courts in the cities.

692 Assizes are held at set intervals, led by a legally trained judge and a jury composed of from five to twelve law members. Besides judging guilt the jury participates in deciding the case as a whole, and it can even outvote the judge. The courts of second instance are the Courts of Appeal, four in number, composed of a President, a Vice-President, senior members or Counselors, and junior members or Assessors. The highest legal authority is entrusted to the Supreme Court to which, in certain cases, complaints against the decisions of the Courts of Appeal may be submitted. It has as its members a President and a number of Counselors of Justice.

674 The following table shows the numbers and the types of criminal actions in 1945:

I. Criminal actions against the Criminal Law	265,527

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A. Against the State or Society	158,450 (of these drunkenness 144,966)
B. Against individuals	7,541 (of these, murder 84)
C. Larceny	99,536
II. Criminal actions against the Law on Liquor Trade (including the unlawful preparing and selling of alcohol)	14,101
III. Other criminal actions (including traffic violations and violations against the rationing of goods)	85,399

696 For retention of criminals there are State penitentiaries and prisons; minor offenses result in payment of fines, for which a period of imprisonment may be substituted. In 1944 the times for imprisonment in the criminal cases handled varied as follows:

Penitentiaries

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Less than 6 months	2
6-12 months	671
1-2 years	547
2-4 years	301
4-8 years	121
8-12 years	33
12 years or more	5
Life imprisonment	8

Prisons

Less than 3 months	880
3-6 months	3072
6-9 months	1995
9-12 months	376
1-2 years	431
2-4 years	51
4 years or more	7

In 1942 the number of persons fined was

696 53, 178.

In 1944 the inmates (totalling 8513 persons) in various penitentiaries were divided as follows:

	Men	Women
In State Penitentiaries	5, 340	441
In prisons	2, 379	328
Imprisoned for fines	156	64
In Work Institutions	639	282

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Suomen tilastollinen vuosikirja 1946-1947. [Annual Statistics of Finland, 1946-1947.] Publication du Bureau Central de Statistique. Helsinki, 1947. Pp. 370.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 2e,

Political Background

FOREIGN POLICIES

648 The main problems in foreign policy Finland has always had with the East, i. e. with Russia. Under the rule of the czars as well as of dictators Finland from the Russian point of view has been an obstacle to westward expansion. The Finns, on the other hand, have been grimly determined to preserve their national existence at any cost, and up to now they have succeeded.

In 1918 Lenin's government acknowledged officially the independence of Finland but did not withdraw the Russian revolutionary troops stationed in the country. These associated themselves with the Finnish Red Guards, so that the Finnish Civil War was a conflict between the Finnish White Government and the Russian

648 Bosheviks as well. Finland, however, did not participate in the struggle between the White and the Red armies in Russia, but numerous Finnish volunteers, mostly high school and university students, took part in the Estonian War of Independence and in the uprising of the Karelians in the following year. Peace between Finland and Russia was made in 1920 in Tartu. The boundaries of Finland were to be the same as those of the Grand Duchy of Finland under Russian rule, and, in addition, an area at the Arctic Ocean, the district of Petsamo, was acquired. The Russians promised to give East Karelia an autonomous status, and several Finnish Communists moved over and became prominent in the administration of this area.

648 883 Among the univerisity students the memory of the Karlian struggle was kept alive, and the most

648 883 radical-minded established the Academic Karelia League, which was active until World War II advocating official Finnish intervention in behalf of the Karelians and the annexation of this area to Finland. The ideals of the League, however, were commonly recognized as youthful fanaticism, and accordingly they had very little influence on general opinion, and none whatsoever on Finnish foreign policy.

648 In 1920 Finland became a member of the League of Nations, which very soon had to decide the dispute between Finland and Sweden concerning the ownership of the Åland Islands. During the Finnish War of Independence these islands had been occupied by Swedish troops, and the population, almost entirely Swedish-speaking, had expressed a wish to be connected with Sweden. The League of Nations, however, decided

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the dispute in favor of Finland, but Åland was to be granted a special autonomous position and guarded against Finnish influence. In view of the strategic importance of this group of islands, it was agreed that Finland could not build any fortresses nor keep any armed forces in this area. Druing World War II Finland proceeded to fortify these islands, but after the armistice the work had to be abandoned, and in the peace treaty the status of Åland remained unchanged. In the early twenties Finland also approached the League of Nations several times on behalf of the Karelians, but nothing was achieved, as Russia at that time was not even a member of the League.

In the years immediately following World War I there was some interest in approaching the border states, i.e. the Baltic states and

648 Poland, which were in a precarious geographical position just as Finland was. From the 1930's, however, a Scandinavian approach was much more popular, by force of similar social and cultural conditions as well as on the basis of common historical tradition. In social and cultural life the co-operation between the Northern Countries has been remarkable, without parallel in any other part of the world, but no treaties or agreements of strategic nature have ever existed. Finland assumed the policy of the Scandinavian neutrality bloc, but in spite of all good hopes it became almost immediately involved in the Second World War, and the other Northern Countries, not wanting to commit themselves, limited their assistance mostly to moral support.

An improvement in relations between Finland and the Soviet Union was noticeable during the

1930's, in spite of the violent anti-Communist movements in the former country. Anon-aggression pact was concluded between these two states in 1932, and in 1934 it was extended over ten more years, until 1945. Even when beginning her march into Poland in late September of 1939, the Soviet Union gave assurance that it was not going to interfere with the neutrality of Finland and various other states whose representatives shortly afterwards were invited to Moscow to discuss the establishment of Soviet military bases in their areas. When her turn came to Finland, there was no doubt of the seriousness of the situation. Realistic and pessimistic by nature, the Finns had little doubt that giving way to the Russian requests would mean the end of their independence, of their whole national existence. Never during their history have the Finns

648 shown such unanimity, such spirit of sacrifice as during the period preceding the Winter War and in the battle that followed. But they had no desire to expose their country to a formidable one-sided war against a great power with a population fifty times larger than their own. They tried compromise with the Russians, and the negotiations were extended over a long period. The Soviet statesmen declared themselves to be concerned for the safety of Leningrad--which according to their opinion not only required the possession of the Karelian Isthmus but of Petsamo as well--and, to assure themselves against the possibility of Finland being used as a base for an invasion of Russia, they demanded that the Hanko Peninsula on the coast of the Gulf of Finland be rented to the Soviet Union for thirty years as a naval base. Negotiations were

648 still going on when the Soviet Union abolished the non-aggression pact, and a few days later, November 30, 1939, started an advance to Finnish territory and a bombardment of Finnish cities.

The Winter War brought to the Finns much military fame and the sympathy of the Western world, but material assistance in the form of modern war equipment remained quite inadequate, not to speak of manpower, which was represented by a few thousand volunteers, mostly Scandinavians. A tentative plan of the French and British governments to interfere in Finland's behalf was stranded after Norway and Sweden refused to grant transit to any foreign troops; the Finns themselves had not been very optimistic about the result of the project. So an armistice was made in Moscow March 12, 1940, the so-called first Peace of Moscow, in which Finland ceded to Russia the Karelian Isthmus, including the city of Viipuri, Ladoga-Karelia, parts of the communes of Salla and Kuusamo in the north, and her share of the peninsula Kalastajasaarento at the Arctic Ocean. The Hanko Peninsula was rented for fifty years.

The months following the treaty of Moscow were precarious for Finland. Not only had she many internal problems to solve, such as the resettling of half a million Karelian refugees, but the political situation abroad grew more and more threatening. After Denmark and Norway had been occupied by the Germans, Finland was cut off from contact with the Western powers. Meanwhile, Russia had annihilated the Baltic states. The only hope for Finland seemed to be in the cooling off of Russo-German relations, 648 which might give to the country an opportunity to balance between two rival powers. Unlike the small Central European nations the Finns had never been touched by the German expansion, and especially among the educated classes there was much pro-German sentiment, based on centuries-long cultural relations and the assistance received from Germany during the Finnish War of Independence. The totalitarian system, on the other hand, had very few supporters in Finland, alien as it was both to the Finnish mentality and tradition. It seemed more or less the choice between two evils, and Germany seemed the lesser of them. Moreover, because of the loss of the Karelian territory and a failure of crops, Finland faced a famine which could be avoided only by German help. As a safeguard, Finland granted transit through her area to the German

648 troops, an indication that in case of a Russo-German conflict Finland had very little possibility of not becoming involved.

At any rate, when the war flashed up again in midsummer, 1941, the Finns still continued their own separate struggle with Russia, apart from the conflict between the big powers. All the Finns wished for the restoration of their lost territory, while some hoped that East Karelia would be united with Finland. Although Great Britain declared war on Finland, this did not lead to any military measures, and the Finns never felt or even remembered that they were supposed to be at war with the English.

The renewed struggle began with success for Finnish arms: Karelia was reoccupied, most of the evacuees returned to their homes, and the Finnish frontier was pushed all the way to

648 Lake Onega in the east. But after Germany had begun to lose the battle on its eastern frontier, Russian pressure against the Finnish lines, especially on the Karelian Isthmus, grew too heavy to resist. In the early part of 1944 Finland tested the possibility of a separate armistice with Russia, but the Russian requirements were overwhelming, especially in war reparations. In June of the same year the President of Finland, Risto Ryti, asked for German help on the Karelian front and on his own responsibility made an agreement according to which Finland would not conclude a separate peace with Russia. In August Ryti, however, resigned, and Mannerheim, the new president again started negotiations with Russia. The result was the second peace of Moscow in September, 1944. This was even more devastating than the first one,

648 including the loss of all the reoccupied territory plus the Petsamo area at the Arctic Ocean, and the release of the Porkkala Peninsula, only about a dozen miles southwest of Helsinki. The requirements for war reparations were mitigated, but still seemed too heavy for any country to cope with; German troops in Finland had to be disarmed and all property belonging to Germany and its allies had to be turned over to the Soviet Union. German troops in northern Finland were offered a free retreat before the armistice, but they refused, and the result was a short but bitter battle in Lappland in the fall of 1944, which resulted in the complete devastation of this area.

An Allied Control Commission in Helsinki supervised the carrying out of armistice terms until September, 1947, when the Peace Treaty

648 concluded in Paris in February of the same year took effect. The Paris Peace Treaty only confirmed the terms concluded in Moscow two and a half years previously. The total area lost by Finland amounted to 43,864 square kilometers (or 17,704 square miles), and the war reparations to 300,000,000 dollars, according to the level of prices in 1938.

After World War II the position of Finland has been precarious, to say the least, but up to now the country has managed to retain its sovereignty and to remain outside the major power coalitions. In April, 1948, an Agreement of Friendship, Co-operation and Mutual Assistance was concluded in Moscow on the initiative of the Soviet Government. According to it, Finland, in case it becomes the base of an attack against the USSR "by Germany or any power allied with

648 her," is obliged to defend its territory, with the help of the USSR, if necessary. Moreover, both parties affirmed the agreement included in the Paris Treaty, according to which they will refrain from participating in any coalitions or treaties directed against the other nation.

After World War II Scandinavian co-operation has further developed in social and cultural life, but any agreements of a strategic nature have been out of the question. According to prevailing opinion, the neutrality of Sweden is extremely important for Finland's independence. It is assumed by many that if Sweden should join the North Atlantic Pact, the result would be the immediate occupation of Finland by Russian forces.

The relations between the United States and Finland have always been friendly, but due to

648 the faraway position of Finland, no questions of a strategic nature have ever arisen.

Being a small country, Finland in her international relations has always tried to settle delicate questions with the help of negotiation and compromise and to avoid force or coercion of any kind. The history of Finland provides ample evidence of the fact that this has not always succeeded.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 3a,

Economic Background

AGRICULTURAL POTENTIAL

241 Agriculture in Finland is hampered by a hard
climate and meager soil. The northern limits
for cultivation of crops such as autumn and
spring wheat, sugar beets, turnips, oats, rye,
barley and potatoes cross the territory of Fin-
land. In Sweden, for example, 80 per cent of
the total crops are grown in regions farther
south than the southernmost parts of Finland.
[423] The holdings in Finland are small in size, and
as a whole farming is closely connected with
livestock raising and forestry, both of which are
433 241 more profitable than the actual farming. The
output of agriculture and its relation to real con-
sumption is indicated in Subparagraph 1q, Public
Welfare.[1] The loss of farmlands caused by the

[1] [see p. 303, cat 116-- Analyst]

433
241 war naturally resulted in a further decline in productivity. If the agricultural production of the years 1937-39 is represented as 100, that of the year 1945 was 63, of 1946 62, 1948 82, and 1951 90.

241
423 In the year 1941 there were altogether 347,420 holdings in Finland, of which 102,731 had less than one hectare (2.471 acres). Some 64,680 holdings were of a size from 1 to 3 hectares, 43,219 from 3 to 5 and 63,964 from 5 to 10 hectares.

241
243 The trend of agriculture during the time of independence has been to adapt certain species of grain to withstand the harsh climatic conditions. This is especially true of the spring wheat, which during the thirties rose to an equal position with rye as the most important species of grain.

000 The Finnish farmers are generally willing to

1: Indiana U. S-4, 5(no date)1955 E01 Finland E01

242
476 The Finnish farmers are generally willing to improve their techniques and to procure modern equipment. Co-operative units, where several farmers buy a tractor or other kinds of machinery together and share them, are common.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 3c,

Economic Background

TAXATION

651 The Finnish citizen is subject to three types of taxes: income, property and church taxes. Members of the established Lutheran or Orthodox Churches are taxed according to the amount of communal taxes which they pay; church taxes are not taken out of the salary but are paid separately at the end of the calendar year. Income taxes are paid to the commune and income and property taxes are paid to the state. These government taxes are collected in advance from salary payments, interest or dividends, and are marked in a special tax book; the balance is settled at the end of the year by declarations made by the individual taxpayers.

Taxpayers are divided into three classes:

651 Class I includes single persons, Class II married couples without children, and Class III married couples or widowed persons who have or have had one or more children. The annual declaration is made on blank A for income received from agriculture, on blank B for income from other kinds of real estate, on blank C for income received from trade and industry, and on blank D for income received from salaries, interests and dividends. In communal taxation a certain number of tax "units" is fixed for each taxpayer, but the size of the unit varies according to the locality.

Income Taxes in 1954.

Income in marks	Amount of tax in taxation class		
	I	II	III
120, 000	400	-	-

651

130,000	1,300	-	-
140,000	2,200	-	-
150,000	3,100	-	-
160,000	4,000	400	-
175,000	5,500	1,750	-
200,000	8,000	4,000	500
300,000	20,000	14,000	9,000
400,000	34,000	26,000	18,000
500,000	51,000	40,000	29,000
600,000	68,000	54,000	40,000
700,000	87,000	70,000	54,000
800,000	106,000	86,000	68,000
900,000	128,000	105,000	84,000
1,000,000	150,000	125,000	100,000

Persons belonging to class III are further entitled to a reduction of 3000 marks for the first child and 5000 marks for each subsequent child under 16.

651 Persons paying tax on property are not divided into different classes.

Property Taxes in 1954

Property estimated in marks	Tax
500,000	500
600,000	700
700,000	900
800,000	1,100
900,000	1,300
1,000,000	1,500
2,000,000	5,000
3,000,000	11,500
4,000,000	18,000
5,000,000	27,000
6,000,000	36,000
7,000 000	47,000
8,000,000	58,000

65

9,000,000	71,500
10,000,000	85,000

Business establishments and private enterprises are taxed according to the same principles as individuals are. However, enterprises which are considered to promote the public welfare are either partially or totally exempted from taxes.

Since World War II taxes have been increasing considerably and their collection has been intensified, the result of which has been a severe economic crisis for many families. Out of a monthly income of 30,000 marks, for example, a single person is taxed 20 per cent of the total, and a married couple with two children 12 per cent; for a monthly income of 60,000 marks the corresponding figures are 25 and 18 per cent; for an income of 100,000 marks, 30 and 25 per

651 cent. There have been renewed demands for and repeated promises of a reduction in the taxation scale, but so far nothing has been accomplished.

SOURCES

113 Miesmaa, Jukka. Facts about Finland. Helsinki: Otava, 1952. Pp. 64; illus.

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Annex "A," Subparagraph 3d,

Economic Background

BANKING AND CURRENCY SYSTEM

652 The State Bank, the Bank of Finland, has operated since 1868 under the guarantee and supervision of the Finnish Diet. Its main functions are to issue notes and to carry on banking operations. This central bank does not accept deposits bearing interest, but public departments and private banks, on the other hand, deposit their cash surplus on current account with the bank. Borrowers from the Bank of Finland normally include only high-class commercial enterprises and Joint Stock Banks. The capital of the bank was at the end of 1945 1,250 million marks and the reserve fund amounted to 1,296.9 million marks. Half of the annual profit is to be transferred on balance to the Reserve Fund,

652 and the Parliament decides on the use of the remaining profit.

453 In 1945 there existed in Finland only seven Joint Stock Banks, each with an extensive network of branch offices. The joint capital of these banks must be at least 10 million marks, and at least 15 per cent of the profits are annually transferred to the Reserve Bank. The most important joint stock banks are Kansallis-Osake-Pankki, Pohjoismaiden Yhdyspankki (Nordiska Foreningsbanken) and Helsingin Osakepankki (Helsingfors Aktiebank).

There existed in 1945 five mortgage banks, of which two assume agricultural mortgages, two deal in town house property and one in industrial undertakings. The three largest Joint Stock Banks have their own mortgage departments.

000 The first Savings Bank was founded in 1823.

1: Indiana U. S-4, 5(no date)1955 EO1 Finland EO1

454 The first Savings Bank was founded in 1823. In 1945 there were 470, 64 in towns, 406 in rural districts. These hold an important position as collectors of savings, especially from people of small means. There are time deposits and deposits on checking accounts, but the importance of the latter has remained comparatively insignificant. The bulk of loans granted by Savings Banks consists of mortgages, usually with 3 months' notice. At the end of 1945, the amount of such loans was 74.1 per cent of all long-term loans granted. Farmers, and in the cities residential joint stock companies and private house-owners, are the principal borrowers.

436 The monetary system is based on the marrka which equals 100 pennies, although in praxis the pennies have disappeared from use. There has been much talk about establishing a larger unit,

426 consisting of 100 marks, but as yet this plan has not been realized.

SOURCES

113 Miesmaa, Jukka, editor

1952. Facts about Finland. Helsinki: Otava. Pp. 64; illus; maps.

Toivola, Urho, editor

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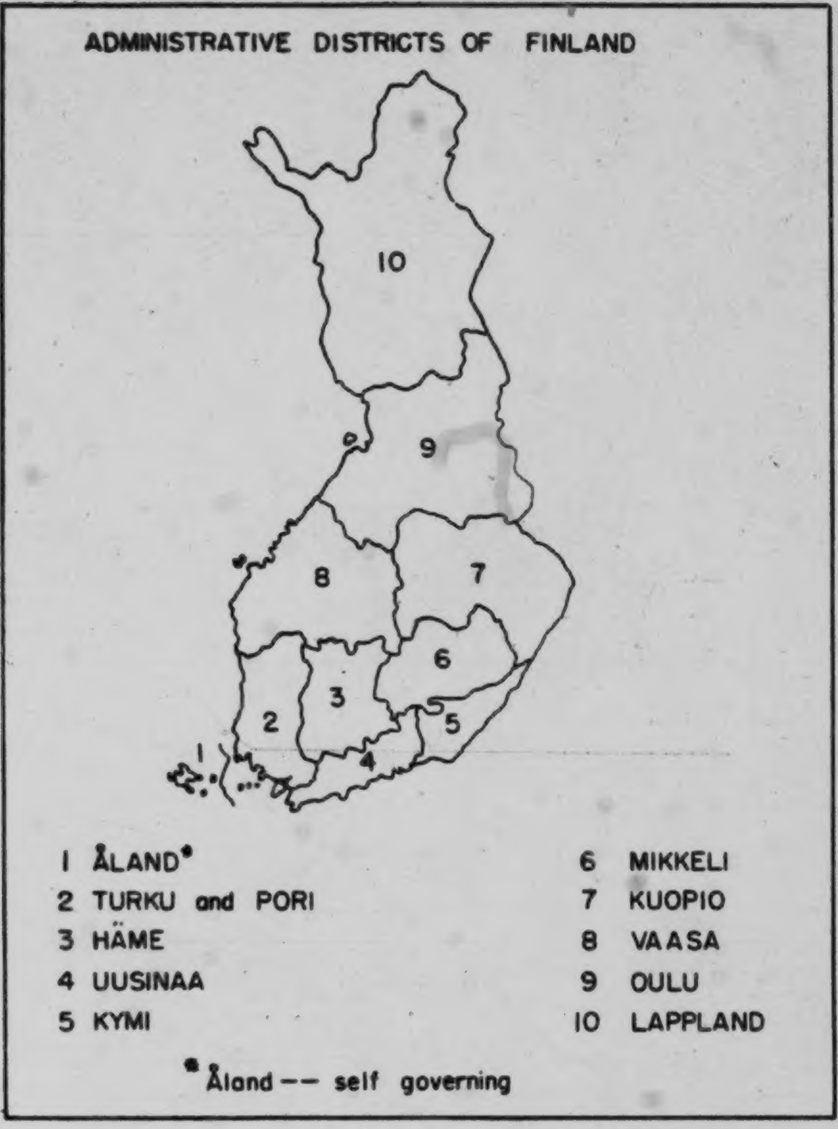
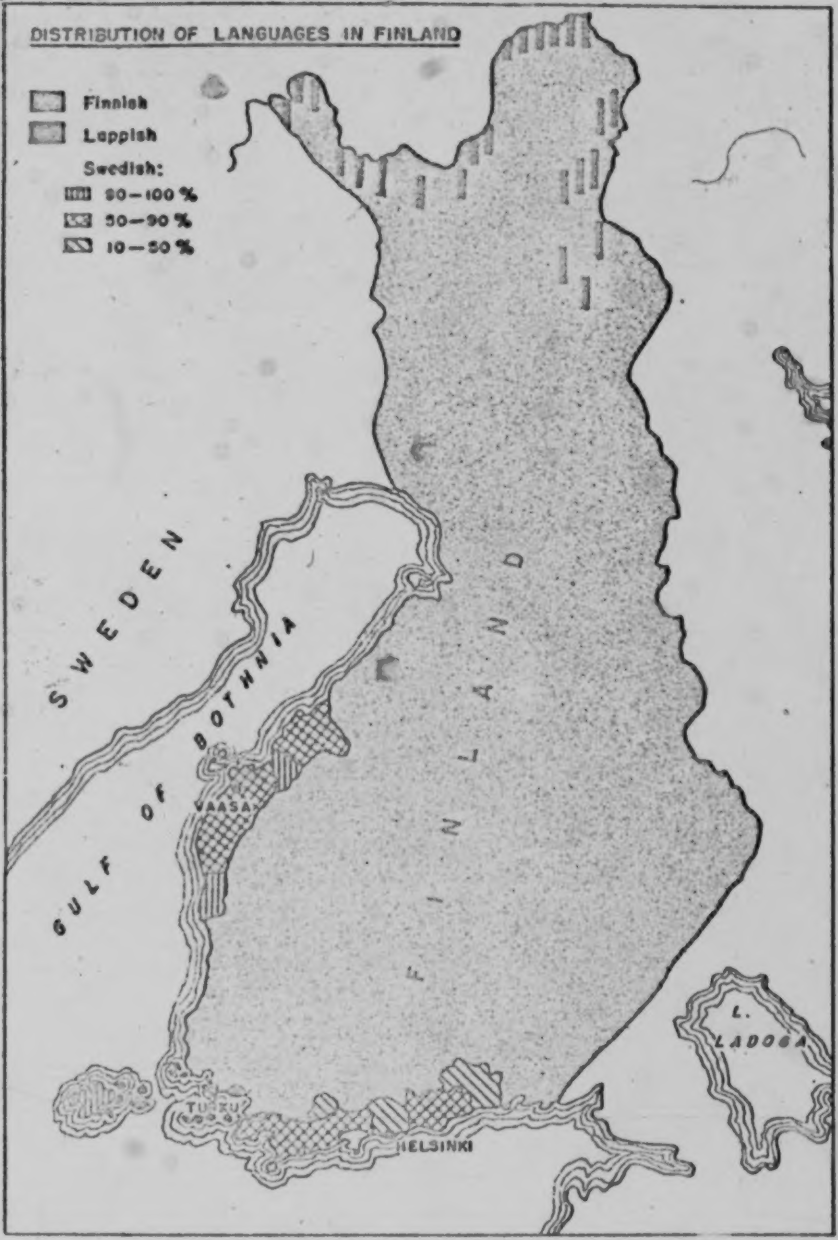


ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICTS OF FINLAND

1 ÅLAND*
2 TURKU and PORI
3 HÄME
4 UUSINAA
5 KYMI
6 MIKKELI
7 KUOPIO
8 VAASA
9 OULU
10 LAPPLAND

* Åland -- self governing

191
196

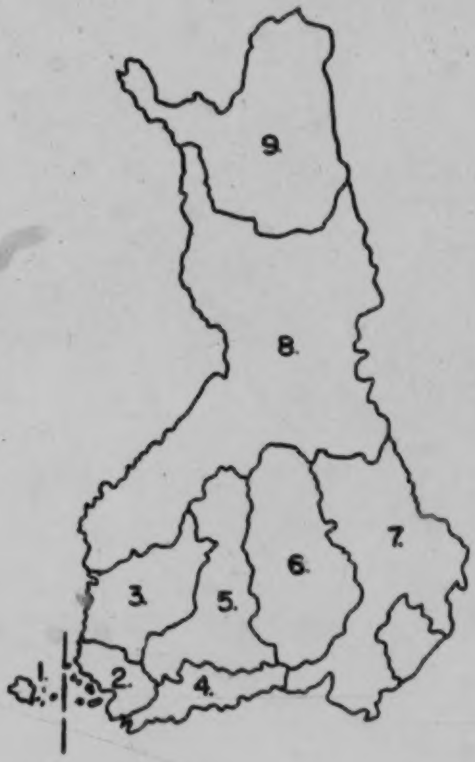


DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGES IN FINLAND

Finnish
Lappish
Swedish:
90—100 %
50—90 %
10—50 %
SWEDEN
GULF OF BOTHNIA
FINLAND
VAASA
TURKU
HELSINKI
L. LADOGA

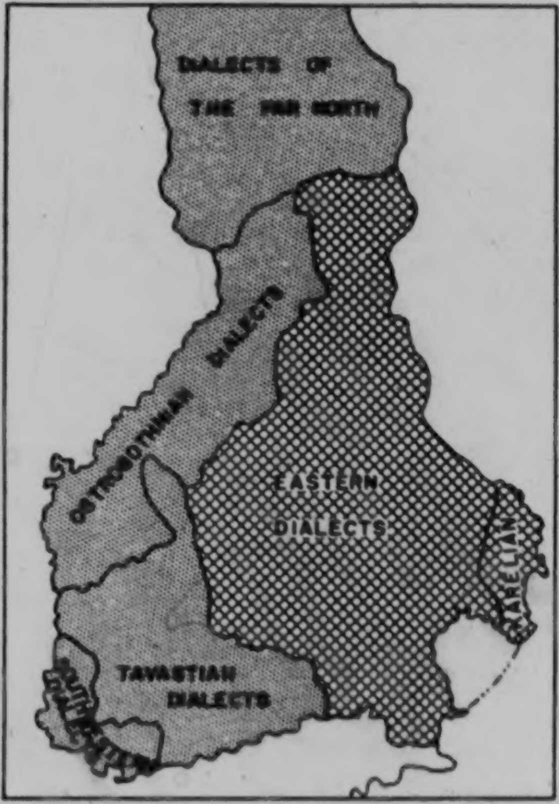
175
631

THE HISTORICAL PROVINCES OF FINLAND



1.	AHVENANMAA – ÅLAND	
2.	VARSINAIS — SUOMI	FINLAND PROPER
3.	SATAKUNTA	
4.	UUSIMAA — NYLAND	
5.	HÄME	TAVASTIA
6.	SAVO	
7.	KARJALA	KARELIA
8.	POHJANMAA	OSTROBOTHNIA
9.	LAPPI	LAPPLAND

PRE-WAR DIALECT DISTRIBUTION IN FINLAND


DIALECTS OF THE FAR NORTH
OSTROBOTHNIAN DIALECTS
EASTERN DIALECTS
KARELIAN
TAVASTIAN DIALECTS
SOUTHWESTERN DIALECTS

▒ WESTERN DIALECTS*

▩ EASTERN DIALECTS

*DIALECTS OF THE FAR NORTH EXTEND TO THE NATIONAL BOUNDARY, INTERMIXED WITH LAPPISH

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131

Map: The Boundaries of Finland.

The boundary between Russia, Sweden and Finland was extended to the Arctic Ocean in 1595, but these northern areas were not considered a part of Finland but, instead, were regarded as Swedish lappmark.

1: Indiana U. S-4 5(no date)1955 E01 Finland E01

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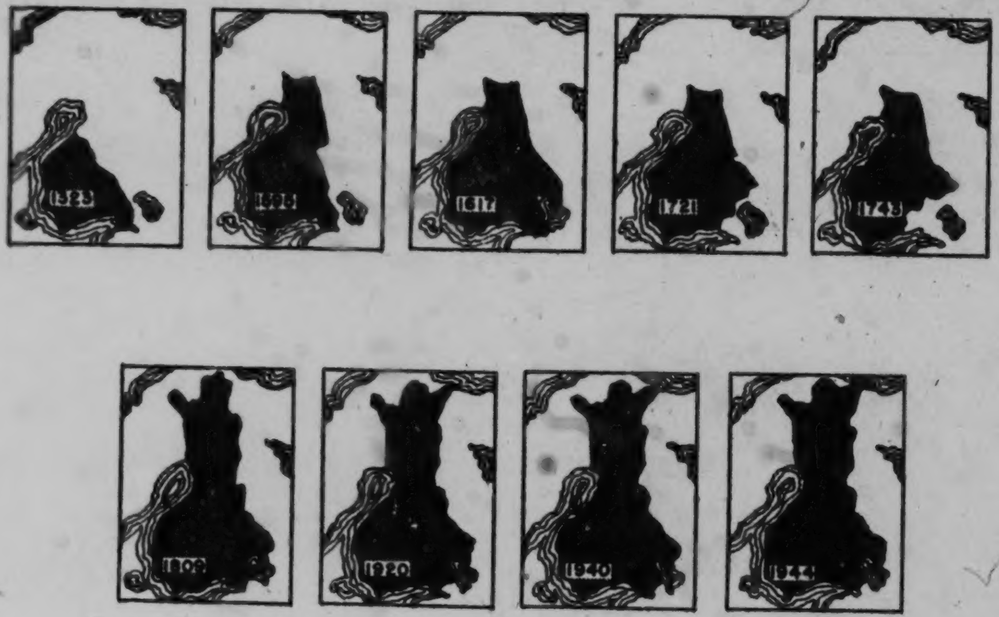
1323
1595
1617
1721
1743
1809
1920
1940
1944

THE BOUNDARIES OF FINLAND
1323 - 1944

1: Indiana U.

EO1 Finland EO1

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[For maps of Finland, see category 116, pp. 386-391.]